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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Darkness or Light¹

A MESSAGE FOR 1932

IT IS customary at the year-end to look back with satisfaction and to face the future with assurance. Today, however, we wish to escape from the past and we gaze ahead with anxiety. For the world is full of loosened boulders and crumbling rocks, coming from we know not where. Many of us are still using the logic of materialism, trying by rule of thumb to chart the curves of past mistakes or the inevitable trends of economic law as if the future of the world could be adjusted by mere coalescence of money and product.

Unfortunately, our grim search for causes has failed to give emphasis to the realities of life—the impersonal attitudes of individuals toward each other, intensified indeed by the strange behavior of organized peoples so that we observe today the full effects of an irresponsible individualism which has multiplied itself many times over into an unenlightened nationalism that knows neither the chivalry of unselfishness nor the tolerance of mutual concession.

We talk of the past as if we truly wished to bring back its supposed gains, its alleged prosperity. But do we really want to go back a decade or two? Is what we have passed through in the last twenty years an ideal to which we would care to revert if we could? What were the nations talking about in 1912? Why, naval holidays and organized peace. And 1914 came to shatter those aspirations. For eighteen years now we have tried to adjust ourselves to the destructive effects of a philosophy as old as primitive man, a savagery as deadly to the human spirit as if jungle law had gone unrepealed.

We have spent the greater part of 1931 blaming each other. We have searched for the culprit who preached the doctrine of speculation and unsound investment, thinking he alone was responsible. We have assumed that the germ could be segregated and guilt made personal in perhaps the banking

¹ Radio Address delivered over the National Broadcasting Company System, on December 27, 1931.

group, or perhaps the salesmanship group, or perhaps in the unlimited production of excessive quantities of goods. And by the same token we are still groping for a formula that by one means or another of artificial control shall bring back some kind of economic equilibrium to enable us to pay our debts.

Yes; the payment of debts hangs over the whole world like a gathering storm with its flashes of fire ready to strike down great edifices of modern business. In the midst of it all, we hear strange voices, nations that have hitherto respected the morality of pledges and promises, nations that now cry "We cannot pay" in tones that too often mean "*We will not pay.*" And we, on our part, join the chorus with the insistent demand "You shall pay, you must pay," a slogan that ignores an age-old relation and forgets that the destruction of the debtor yields no return to the creditor, that trade is not built by isolation and that interchange of goods is the only device which ever produced in normal times a wholesome intercourse between nations.

What is the basis of this newly developed antagonism, this coarseness of spirit and defiance of all that civilization has ever taught us? We fought a war to break down the theory that might makes right. We paid for it in an enormous destruction of human capital and in an unprecedented drain on the credit resources of the world—those pledges of repayment which can only be expressed in mortgages on the earnings of future generations.

It was a terrible price to pay for human progress. It brought a dislocation of the world's economic machinery, first by the subtraction of ten million individuals from mortal life and second by the subsequent miseries of unemployment for twenty-five million more persons. Scarceley had we turned the sod on Flanders' field when the wake began. A decade of debauchery, such as the modern world has never seen, affected the lives of men, women and children everywhere. The worship of gold begot a reckless indifference to all codes, corporate or personal, in an orgy of unrestrained sin.

The state stood by an accessory to the crimes of an ir-

responsible individualism. Selfishness was enthroned in all its cruel majesty. To the faint cries: "This shall never happen again," and the suggestions of a league of peoples to organize mankind, there came the laughter of scorn as if the brotherhood of man had never been given the breath of a dominant religion nineteen hundred odd years ago. And thus we developed our irresponsible individualism into a creed of self-centered nationalism.

We ask: "When will the depression end; when will we recover our economic poise; what formula shall we use to bring business back?", believing still that by waving a magic wand we can set in motion the great forces of profitable business. Are we blind again to the greater necessity of a renaissance of human spirit, an awakening—a new attitude of mind among individuals as well as nations?

It is idle to speak of economic recovery until there has been a fateful change in the attitude of peoples toward each other. And this can come only out of a regeneration of the individual. Intense suffering has always turned our thoughts from selfishness to unselfishness, from irresponsible to responsible individualism.

Could we but spread over the world a new spirit, a new approach to the perplexing problems that are tearing the hearts of mankind, we would be making substantial progress. For we cannot solve our difficulties by merely feeding and clothing the unemployed. We cannot go on from year to year with seven million or more people in our own ranks depressed in spirit, carrying the badge of humiliation and defeat in an economic system that dins into our ears the doctrine of the law of the survival of the fittest and the supposed compensations of a bleeding deflation.

We fought a war to make it possible for democracies to remain. We fought autocracy and the dictatorships that threatened our God-given individualism. But are we prepared to make other sacrifices now to preserve free governments? Are we ready to help other peoples safeguard the cause of liberty bequeathed to us from the revolutionary battlefields of generations past?

If we are not, if we still persist in believing that all will be well with the world while hunger and starvation take their awful toll, as we wait for consumption and production to become naturally adjusted, we are merely dedicating the next five years to the largest social readjustment the world has ever experienced. Two years of the world-wide depression have passed us by while we sit unreconciled to the realities of the upheaval we have felt but failed to understand.

Could we but regard ourselves as interdependent, as nations that must trade with each other, that must lend to each other, that must trust one another, that must give and take in the spirit of reciprocal friendship, we would give courage to the faltering voices of statesmen who see the course we should traverse but who are not emboldened yet by an enlightened public opinion to set their faces to the horizon that beckons them.

What is that course? Where should we go if we could but breathe a new spirit into the world for 1932?

First, we must cast out of our systems the law of retaliation, with its implications of ultimate revenge. We shall never cure injustice by resorting to a contest wherein man destroys man. We shall move forward only by endeavoring to raise the standard of international morality, by invoking the religion of reason and the higher laws of self-abnegation. Translated into the present situation in Europe, this means a political truce between nations on the continent for a period of at least ten years during which time there may be employed once more the healing processes that have in the past broken down a vengeful nationalism.

Second, with mutual trust reestablished, there can be no need for excessive armaments with their economic burdens that tax and destroy business energies and throw budgets out of balance. Debts can be paid once more when budgets are rid of the armament expense which in the past has been defended alone on the theory of the insecurity of peoples.

Third, a restoration of international confidence growing out of a political equilibrium, bringing as it inevitably must, payment of debts and balanced budgets, creates once more

a world market for the bonds of honest peoples. This means that the war debts can be transferred from the governments to the investing public so that there no longer is a distinction between public and private debts but a willingness on the part of all governments and peoples to pay each year the fixed charges on the war indebtedness. This is often described as the commercialization of the debts, something not now possible in a credit disturbed world but eventually logical. By discounting future payments on a cash basis, the debts themselves will be cut down and the whole world can absorb five to six billions of such indebtedness in two or three years without feeling any ill-effects therefrom.

Fourth, a readjustment of trade relations with truly competitive tariffs in place of embargoes and with reciprocity as the foundation stone of international intercourse. Then and only then can large sums be loaned for the encouragement of export and import trade the world over. This may develop, too, an improvement in our credit instrumentalities so that between the so-called long term and the short term may come an intermediate credit to support the huge trade structure we have reared in the past and shall build once more.

We had nine and a half billion dollars' worth of export and import trade before the depression began. We now have about four and a half billion dollars' worth. If we do not sell to other peoples, we cannot buy from them. If we lose foreign trade, we affect 10 per cent of our productive capacity. We cannot survive on a 90 per cent home market and retain our standards of living. We cannot accept the counsel of those who say we must go backward and not forward. We cannot support our increased population by rationing our employment or our payrolls. We must have markets and increased payrolls so that we, too, may buy from abroad and help to sustain others. For to do otherwise is to ignore the twenty-two billions of capital our people have invested in other lands. We cannot see the rest of the world in collapse and expect our own people to escape the repercussion. We want no more bank failures and no loss of confidence due to the ill effects of an enormous loss of capital abroad. It helps

us little to say, "Oh, we can write off that loss and tend to our own affairs." We can never write off a loss of public confidence nor can we expect seven million persons to remain idle while the orthodox economist spreads his chart over a decade of reconstruction in the belief that democracies or free governments will be immunized against epidemics of social disorder by a gospel of patience or the luckless phrases of propagandized optimism.

Nineteen hundred thirty-two may bring us, and we pray that it will bring us, prosperity. But it would be camouflaging our innermost thoughts to predict such an early recovery. There is no justification for judging by the realities that now are so clearly outlined for us. We shall indeed make little progress until we develop a new spirit, and a new approach. The solution of our difficulties lies within our own will and within our own power. We cannot expect a magic transformation of economic elements for it will never come.

So the length of the depression will be measured by the length of time it takes the people of this country and the people of other countries, expressing their will through courageous leaders, to abandon the unreasoning attitude of a decade of selfish, economic and financial warfare. There is a meeting January 18 at The Hague of the European nations that owe war debts. It will be a turning point. Will they accept the seemingly easy course of repudiation and default or will they inspire the world with resoluteness and courage by a determination to find a way to pay? Will they teach their own peoples the doctrine of honored obligations or will they urge them to violate the sanctity of contracts and pledges by following in private life the unmoral example of governments dishonored before the world?

And then in February there will be held at Geneva a conference to discuss the reduction of armament expense. It will prove futile unless underlying such a conference is a new spirit, a new determination to organize the peace of mankind. Europe rose to an emotion of self-sacrifice and mutual good will at Locarno. Can it rise above provincialism at Geneva and inspire the world to believe that the moral force of a

brotherhood of man is a greater goal to attain than the doubtful victories of man-destroying instruments?

The hearts of free people are beating nervously as the test approaches in 1932. And what can we do as the climax draws near? We can turn in these critical hours to the unconquerable spirit of our fathers, the faith that guided the destiny of human life through the dark ages of selfishness and greed in centuries past for, inevitably, the light of reason and conscience that has been dimmed in a decade of irresponsible individualism must shine brightly once more as the new nationalism spreads good will on earth—an enlightened nationalism, an intelligent nationalism, a helpful, kindly and brotherly nationalism which alone can mitigate and relieve the universal suffering of mankind.

DAVID LAWRENCE,
Washington, D. C.

The University of Today¹

THE local occasion which brings us together is submerged in the international occasion which focuses today the thought of the world upon the coming of the peace. A university is so dynamic in its life that no occasion, however local or however international, is outside the range of its radiation. The campus and the world interact upon each other with generative and regenerative power. A university is more than intellectually dynamic, it is vitally organic with the life streams of the culture of the ages and the present hopes of the people. With a rootage as deep as the race and as wide as the world the university grows in local soil for the finding of truth for all and the development of youth in whom are gathered both the local and international hopes of mankind.

A modern university is such a vital and manifold institution, has been so integrated into the structure of western civilization, unbroken in their interconnection since the twelfth century, is so intimately a part of the context of every real problem of the modern world, that any life strand found at hand anywhere running through the life of the world enters into the texture of the modern university. We may work out from that strand into the complex life of the university and back again into the tangled life of the world.

ARMISTICE DAY AND THE UNIVERSITY

This is November 11, 1931, the fourteenth Armistice Day. As we in Chapel Hill go back to the armistice hour of that first day we find, as the minute hand moved close to the hour, a young man, not long from the classrooms and playing fields of this university, was struck down at the head of his men and lay dying as the armistice hour struck the peace for a war-wrecked world. He was one of the tens of thousands of

¹ Inauguration Address delivered at the University of North Carolina, November 11, 1931.

college men killed where danger stretched its farthest front, one of the ten millions of the fittest men on earth killed in four years of war. Greater than the gigantic figures of death, disease, and physical destruction is the uncountable loss of creative intellectual and spiritual power. All gone the training, the potential discoveries, inventions, literature, ideas, and dreams of youth done to death. Disillusionment to those who killed them! With all the heroism and idealism of the war, came also the moral and spiritual damages suffered far from the battlefield by millions caught in the awful backwash of the war and the wreckage of the values of human life and personality. Upon the backs of them who fought the war and whose work sustains a broken and bewildered world is now loaded the crushing costs of the war to be paid by them, their children, and their children's children.

Today, as the sun makes its way across the world to the armistice hour, the peoples of Europe and America become still and silent as they remember their dead and the peace that came. It ties us to all mankind as we listen to the deep stillness of the millions in their silent commemorative aspiration for peace. Here in this beautiful Kenan Memorial Stadium we were silent and joined in the stillness of the peoples in a spiritual fellowship of the hope for peace on earth and goodwill toward men everywhere. We would be untrue to the spirit of this university, which has ever given and will ever give her life and her youth to every call that comes to the idealism and heroism of youth, if we did not link the purpose of this day to the purpose of this university and schools everywhere.

The colleges and universities, by virtue of their humane purpose and the very nature of their social being, have the responsibility of helping to build a world in which the call to the idealism and heroism of youth shall never again be a call to war. It is their function to make realistically intelligent and morally heroic the aspirations and work of mankind toward a warless world, vivid with the unfolding possibilities of cooperative work and play, valorous with the adventures of physical and social mastery, and beautiful with the artistry of the human spirit.

THE COLLEGE

To these high ends stands the university. At the center of the university is the college of liberal arts. In these recent decades the college of liberal arts, as a result of its own incoherence, the advance of the junior college, and the encroachments of the professional and vocational schools, has been subjected to a severe defensive re-examination as to its place in the scheme of higher education. Several fundamental and dramatic experiments are now under way involving both the personalities of the experimenters and the function of the college. Scores of other experiments involving the purpose of the college in general and the curriculum and teaching methods in particular give a various and cumulative content to what has been called "a movement" for the college of liberal arts. The history of the college of liberal arts, whether as the denominational college which heroically blazed the trail for all the others, or as the privately endowed independent college, or as the central college of the modern university, private or state, gives solid ground for such re-invigoration of the college of arts and science. The college of arts and sciences, the foundation college for the professional and graduate schools and service province of them all, has a kingdom of its own and a purpose within its own high nature. This purpose, toward which it has in various forms been groping for centuries, is the development of the more complete human being, a unified victorious personality, increasingly equipped to understand himself and the world in which he is to play his useful and cooperative part. The struggle of the college to find its place and purpose has helped both to reflect the shape and spirit of the age. Any sound reconsideration of the curriculum of the college should be from the approach of historical experience, the unchanging values of the whole human personality, and the needs of the changing times.

1. THE BACKGROUND OF THE CURRICULUM

Amid its mediaeval origins the liberal arts were subordinated to the ecclesiastical ends of preparation for the next world. With the Renaissance, despite all its vivid implica-

tions in the affairs of this world, its recovery of old ideas, its discoveries of a new world and a new way to an old world, a new earth and the new heavens, yet the widening interests of the universities centered largely in the ancient learning as containing all learning. Learning for the next world gave way in part to learning from the classic past. The scientific revolution of the last three centuries brought the minds of the men of the universities from their absorption in the next world and their preoccupations with the ancient culture to a concern for the present and the mastery of this earth and the forces of nature. It came to be thought that the human intellect, with its new sciences, could go beyond the learning of the ancients and bring heaven to earth now, whether in the New Atlantic or in New Worlds for Old.

In these three periods of cultural history—scholastic, humanistic, and scientific—we find curricular adjustments in slow response to the intellectual emphasis of the age. In the mediaeval university, though the secular process was under way, we still found in this stronghold of scholasticism, scorn of the body and this world. Incidentally, it may be said that physical education is yet to break through the scholastic doors and get into the curriculum of this university and many American universities of the twentieth century. During the Renaissance the revived classics had a difficult time winning a place in the curriculum and there are those today who would throw them out altogether. With the rise of the new science, the scholastics and the humanists, who became dominant in the universities, combined to delay the recognition of science on a basis of curricular equality with the humanities. But there can be no mistaking the masterful tones of science today in the universities and in the world. In response to the increasing complexity of modern society there arose in turn the new group of social sciences. The humanities and the natural sciences gave questioning admission to the newer social sciences. "Neither paleontology, as a natural-scientific introduction to anthropology, nor anthropology, as a social-scientific introduction to archaeology and history, is in the curriculum of this university and many

other universities." This questioning is a valid process, but more and more the new social science will prove their saving value in this complex and baffling age.

2. THE BODY AS BASIC TO THE WHOLE PERSONALITY

In so far as the curriculum failed to meet the physical needs of youth in the mediaeval university and the aesthetic and spiritual needs of youth in modern America, it was, and is, incomplete in meeting the needs of the whole human being. The ideal of the liberal college is to develop the whole personality. It is the high witness of the race from the ideal of the Greek philosophers to the findings of the modern psychologists and biologists that youthful training should be based on the unity of the human being. William James said that every experience involves the neural mechanism. Professor Conklin from his Princeton and Woods Hole biological laboratories says, "More and more science is recognizing the unity of the entire organism; structure and function, body and mind, are parts of one living whole." Neglect of the body, then, is a neglect of an instrument of thought and feeling. The whole personality participates for better or worse in every physical or mental or emotional expression of the human being. Damage to the body cuts down the intellectual and emotional capacities. Deficiencies in the training of the physical senses short-circuit much of the beauty and glory of the world. Resiliency of the body brings resiliency of the mind. Generous energies make for the liberal spirit. Yet the college would miss its purpose in exalting the physical and athletic to the subordination of the intellectual and spiritual. Athletics should be a means on the way to something higher. Physical education, with its courses in physiology and hygiene, its gymnasium, playing fields, intramural sports, and the promotion of both indoor and outdoor volunteer play, would constitute the wholesome groundwork of both the general physical well-being and college sports. The varsity teams would then be the democratic and natural but the none the less crowned products of a community participation in athletics. The college would then work through the body,

through sports and sportsmanship, hardihood, courage and fair play, to a higher human code, and to the imaginative release of the human spirit through sport into the building of a more beautiful personality.

3. INTELLECTUAL CONTENT AND TRAINING

With the recognition of the indispensable values of the body, the college of liberal arts can then justly and more successfully insist on that excellence in intellectual training which is one of its basic concerns. The body will be better equipped and more alert to respond to a trained mind. This basic need for trained minds recurringly raises the question as to what are the best subjects for intellectual discipline and excellence. This question takes us, as we have noticed, into the historical midst of the fifteenth and sixteenth century struggle as to the comparative intellectual and spiritual values of the sacred and secular learning and the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth century battle of the classics and the sciences. It also takes us into the midst of the nineteenth century rivalry between the ancient and modern languages and between the elective system and required courses once considered essential for formal discipline. It finds us now in the very center of the twentieth century pull between the humanities, natural sciences and older social sciences on one side and the newer social sciences on the other.

In these days, when we hear, on one side, that the liberal arts college in the university should be abolished and university work be made immediately professional and vocational or of senior college and graduate grade, and, on the other side, that the liberal arts education should not only be divorced from any specific connection with the professions and vocations but should not include any subject that has any utilitarian value, it is well for us not to be dogmatic, but to try to keep our historical perspective and preserve our cultural balance. Well on in the nineteenth century we hear James Russell Lowell say that a university should be a place where nothing useful is taught and Ezra Cornell say that a university should be a place where any student could study anything he

wanted to know. As we listen to the dead masters of the arts and sciences speaking on the subject of the content, distribution, and values of the liberal courses, Francis Bacon, Milton, Goethe, Cardinal Newman, John Stuart Mill, Huxley, Charles W. Eliot, Gilman, Harper, James R. Angel, Benjamin Ide Wheeler, Charles R. Van Hise, David Starr Jordan, and Edwin A. Alderman, or the living teachers, thinkers and experimenters in the field of a liberal education, we may dare to adapt their liberal view to modern developments and sum them up essentially in saying that a liberal education should include those matters every human being should know, as a human organism, as an intelligent citizen, and as a spiritual personality, about himself, his body, his mind, and his emotions; the race, its origin and historical development; the economic and political structure of society and its human implications; some languages, the essence of the great literatures, arts, philosophies and religions of mankind, with some limitations on the breadth of the distribution of courses and some provision for the depth of concentration in the field of a special interest. The physical and mathematical sciences, the biological sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities constitute the main divisions in America's most daring and dramatic curricular adventure. Many American colleges are now working out the values of some such curriculum. It is important that we do not merely imitate. We can, as we tentatively explore the curriculum, keep our minds open to these welcome experiments out of which are to come values, we believe, for all our colleges and universities.

In the mastery of these liberal subjects, if reenforced by master teachers with laboratories, observatory, library, music hall, theatre, studio, galleries, museum and the world of nature, will come limitless opportunities for mental discipline and student self-education in exactness in observation, relentless analysis, logical organization of materials and ideas, clear exposition, appreciation of truth, beauty, and moral heroism, and practice in expressing in various art forms more beautifully what is deep in the mind and soul of youth.

4. THE CAMPUS

Supplementing the classroom, the library, and the laboratory is the campus. Sometimes, unfortunately, the campus and its activities supplant the classroom, the library and the laboratory. Sometimes they doubtless partly serve to make up for the lack of imaginative vitality and the opportunity to participate creatively in the learning process. These activities are vivid with personalities and the warm currents of youthful life, with opportunities of leadership and cooperation, and challenging with problems of freedom and self-government. The campus should not supplant or merely supplement, but can, with well-balanced activities and wise and sympathetic guidance, organically reinforce the purpose of the college to develop the whole human being, the integrated view, and the creative life.

5. THE INTEGRATED VIEW AND SPIRITUAL VALUES

Above campus activities, curriculum and content, above intellectual power itself, is the spirit of culture, the integrated view, the understanding mind that sees in deep perspective and in wide relation. There is no magic in the liberal arts course to make the liberal mind. A student may master the words and syntax of a language and miss the majesty and beauty of the literature. He may work daily in the stacks and miss the decisive significance of the library as the reservoir of the race from which the streams of history gather momentum and direction. He may make an efficient routine of work in the laboratory and fail to realize that in quiet laboratories work the scholars who are blazing now the obscure trails which are to become the highways of the world's life. He may with his microscope identify the particles of an electron and miss the personality next to him in the laboratory. He may with his telescope get a sense of the sweep of the universe and may fail to develop the imaginative sympathy that senses for him the struggles and sweep of mankind through history. He may learn historical facts and miss the influence of the moral heroism of Socrates or a Wilson or the spiritual beauty of Saint

Francis or a Florence Nightingale. He may discover or dig out facts and have no sense of humility or opportunity in the presence of the implications of the discovery of truth for mankind. The teacher's opportunity comes in the opportunity to help the student develop not only mental discipline, mastery of content, and intellectual excellence, but also an attitude of mind, an intelligent response to heroic situations and an appreciative assimilation into the core of his own character the nobility in the lives of those whom he meets in books and in life. The liberal education would give both depth and breadth to the mind and would embrace in its deepening processes of integration the spiritual values of human personality.

This integrated view includes within its range not only the unity of the courses and groups of courses which constitute the content of the liberal arts and sciences, but also the unity of the race and more and more the unity of the universe. Departments of knowledge, despite elaborate separation, overlap and merge in other departments. Conklin says, for example, that psychology and education are branches of biology because they are all studies of living things. Then for example, physics is geological, biological and chemical in nature. Astronomical and mathematical physics, with its seventeenth century universe of a fixed reference frame and immutable laws of nature, which God himself respected, carried over its influence and contributed to the political conception of a constitution of fundamental law and the inalienable rights of man which the king, himself, with his claim of divine rights had to respect. The mechanical conception of the universe, reenforced by a mechanical civilization, went over into the preconception of a mechanically self-balancing economic system operating automatically according to immutable economic laws. There is the trace of this mechanical influence as a strand in the weaving of the classical economics of the nineteenth century, the behavioristic psychology of the twentieth century, and varying forms of the mechanistic philosophy in the last two centuries. Biology, with its theory of evolution, reenforced the preconceptions of a free competitive society and the philosophy of war. Thus we see from these

fragmentary and often fugitive bits of influences the deep interrelation of physics, mathematics, biology, psychology, economic and political theories, and a philosophy of life. The integrated view of the many strands and influences that go into the making of our lives and our philosophy that can come from the new curriculum of the college is essential not only to a student's better understanding of himself and the most acute problems of the modern age, but is essential also to a view of the universe.

We listen to a great American physicist as he traces the steps in the gradual integration of the six formerly rigorously separated branches of physics on the way to becoming one great whole. The professor of theoretical physics in the University of Berlin recently writes that the study of philosophy, once in scientific disrepute, is coming back with a new meaning and a wider power. Professor Planck points out that, as scientific research by its conquest of the world of sense "simplifies the world picture of physics, the structure of the physical world moves further and further away from the world of sense." What Professor Planck points out as the increasing simplification of the world picture becomes the basis for a more integrated view of the universe. We deeply need the values in the integrated view of the great philosophers. The scientist and philosopher are approaching a more respectful meeting in the presence of the mystery of life and the universe. Haldane moves from matter to mechanism to life to personality to spirituality. Personality, as an evolutionary achievement, reveals the spiritual quality of the materialistic process. From physics we go into metaphysics. Matter becomes energy, and energy brings us to the borderland of a universe, seen and unseen, the reverberations of whose moral sovereignty are in the inner man in answer to the intuitions and aspirations of the human spirit.

As in life so in college, subjects, ideas, and processes cannot be kept in separate departments. We should in college, if for no other reason than convenience, have departments of subjects but not compartments of knowledge. The very fluidity of ideas and the organic nature of life processes makes it

necessary that in our very respect for specialization and the value of departments we should from time to time reexamine the curriculum. Let us welcome the scores of experiments under way all over America and not adopt any of them by way of imitation but adapt what is good as we venture on our own account according to our own needs. In no other way than by the integrated view can we understand the wider implications of the specialized knowledge. Only with the whole view can we build up correlative social control of the new forces and mechanisms let loose upon the world by specialized knowledge with the power to destroy or rebuild the structure of the modern world.

These are the high stakes for which the college would play its part. Its conception of the unity of learning, the unity of life and the unity of the universe makes for a sense of the spiritual potentiality of the total personality. This integrated view makes for a sense of the spiritual essence of civilization, even in its gathered fragments transmitted more and more from age to age with the possibility of being transformed into the Kingdom of God according to the pattern of Him who was the master teacher of the inner way of the integrated life.

THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

In the rebuilding of the civilization of the Kingdom, we need not only the specialized knowledge and the integrated way of life but also specialized ways of making a living. The college is based on the idea of Jesus that man does not live by bread alone; but we must remember that the first petition in the Lord's Prayer is "Give us this day our daily bread." Youth, to play a significant part in the world's life, needs a specialized skill, a vocation, a profession. The vocational and professional schools came in America largely outside the universities on account of the gaps in the university structure. This specialized skill in law, medicine, pharmacy, agriculture, engineering, education, business, journalism, and public administration and welfare was learned by the apprentice on the job. But as the professions and vocations became more complex, proprietary schools of law, medicine, pharmacy, and

business arose to meet a real life need. Schools of religion have a rightful place in the modern university. The School of Religion at Duke University has high potential value to the whole South. In time the joint processes of the specialization and integration of knowledge in all the fields resulted in the incorporation of all professional schools and some high grade vocational schools within the framework of the university.

The university needs the professional schools with their specialized knowledge, equipment, and skill, their high standards of scholarship, their spirit of work, thoroughness, and excellence. The professional schools, assimilated into the organic structure of the university, need the university with its wide variety of skills, interests, and contacts; its general resources, and wholeness of view. Consider the reciprocal contributions of Osler, Welch and Hopkins, the Pound group and Harvard, the Russell group and Columbia, Shailer Mathews and Chicago.

The professional schools, while raising the standards of specialized scholarship, need to be concerned more and more with the liberal cultural equipment of the master. The teacher in the professional school is in a strategic position to preserve and carry forward the liberal culture and the general view. He can bring to a focus on the most highly technical problem all the historical, economic, social, psychological, political or philosophic influences which converge upon it with implicating power. In the law schools there is the beginning of the recognition of the value of the liberal reenforcement of the most highly technical knowledge. For example, a professor who received his liberal arts training in a southern university, his doctorate in economics in the middle west, is teaching torts in the law school of an eastern university. Another who has the liberal arts degree, the doctorate of philosophy in economics and politics, and two law degrees, is, despite his youth, already a productive scholar and able teacher of law. A new professor of pharmacy in this university has a liberal training as the foundation of, and doctorate of philosophy on top of, his special scientific training. Without

making a fetish of degrees, this liberal training is basic to a wholesome attitude of mind in professional training. Some of the most scholarly and liberally cultured minds in America are in schools of engineering, commerce, agriculture, education and other highly professional schools. Many, also, who have never seen a college have a spirit of the rarest culture distilled from nature, books and life. These men have been careful not to set method over against liberal learning. With a view to cultural and human implications of the most specialized knowledge, they find themselves in the midst of work and culture, surging life and the difficult, but at times thrilling, processes of rebuilding a world.

A teacher in an east Carolina city communicated the flame within his heart to men and women who transformed communities, became teachers, superintendents of schools, and presidents of several southern colleges and universities. A permanently crippled but youthful ex-Confederate, no longer master of slaves but master of botany and chemistry, scientifically remade old plantations, built mills, endowed a college and became the source of hope to people over a wide area. A later youth, trained culturally in the South and vocationally in the North, brought back into the southern piedmont a kit of tools and a youthful dream for a venturesome part in re-founding the structure of our southern civilization. A young lawyer in a public religious meeting, standing up for freedom of scientific inquiry against the tides that rolled in upon him, stood unmoved in the tumult, steadfast in the strength of science, history, the humanities, and the religion of Jesus which mustered to his almost lonely side. Many business men in these hard times are draining their reserves and are taking their losses standing up in order that people may have work and food. Editors, with courage for opprobrium and financial loss, have fought the fight of the inarticulate peoples and of despised minorities. Physicians daily minister to the bodies, minds and spirits of men. Rabbis, priests, and preachers come out of lonely vigils to sustain the sympathies, courage, and faith of men in cruel times. To lawyers, doctors, pharmacists, teachers, journalists, business men, scientific engineers, social

engineers, statesmen, and ministers of religion; to them with the depth of a specialized mastery and the cultural breadth of an imaginative mind, there open professional opportunities as wide as the needs of the people.

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

But a group of professional schools around the college do not make a university. Without a graduate school there can be no university. Post-graduate courses do not make a graduate school. The American Association of Universities, essentially an association of graduate schools, founded in 1900 by Presidents Eliot, Gilman, and Harper in the interest of excellence in graduate research, holds as one of its present requirements for membership that a university be equipped in faculty, laboratories, general library, and special source materials to give the degree of doctor of philosophy in five departments. However adequate be the laboratories and supplies, departmental libraries and source materials, carrells, seminar rooms and all the valuable facilities for thorough research, without great scholars the whole apparatus of research may become as so much sounding brass. There can be no great graduate school and no great university without great teachers. A good part of a lifetime given by day and by night on scant resources to the deep exploration of a field is the price of the scholarship of the master. No smattering and no sham; only thoroughness and excellence among the masters. Several groups of these masters, distinguished in different fields, prevent unchecked specialization in any one field. These various groups of eminent scholars, seekers for truth, and teachers, by the very interrelation of fields, intellectual interchange, and coordination on the level of graduate excellence are integrated into the university. The university guidance of graduate work should make impossible research in ultra-scholastic and utilitarian trivialities, but at the same time should not by a routine uniformity or traditional control cramp the vigorous and autonomous life of schools and departments. Tradition and routine should give way to excellence. The quality of the college, the professional schools,

and the whole university is renewed from and advanced by the excellence of the graduate school. The college of arts and sciences is the youthful heart of the university, the professional schools are its skillful arms, and the graduate school is its crowning glory.

1. RESEARCH AND TEACHING

The two particular functions of the graduate school are to train students in research and to prepare students to teach. The two functions, though separate in their techniques, reinforce each other in the unity of the graduate purpose for the advancement of knowledge and the well-being of the race. In some universities three-fourths of the graduate students become teachers. A great teacher, without publication of his researches, is sometimes an apparently unrecognized gift of God to his generation. Yet research is a resource of the teacher. There is a sense of reverent humility in him who has to dig in the sources for his own facts and ideas. There is often a contagious enthusiasm communicated to the students by the teacher who comes fresh from the mine bringing the ore in the hands that dug it out. Research on the part of the teacher in the humanities and sciences deepens the content and insight of the teacher and makes available fresh resources for other teachers; develops the scholarly research spirit in many students, and thus widens the association and the interchange of the ideas of teachers and scholars around the earth who, by their patient discovery and teaching of truth, are doing their hopeful bit toward the gradual making of a better world.

2. RESEARCH ON ITS OWN ACCOUNT

Research, apart from teaching, has values on its own account. It was James Madison's patient and thorough researches into the structure of the Ancient, Western European and Colonial governments that enabled him, as a practical statesman in the Critical Period, to guide the framing of the Constitution of the United States. Hertz, the German research scholar, standing on the pure researches of the English

professor, Clerk Maxwell, discovered the idea out of which Marconi, the Italian, invented the mechanism for wireless telegraphy. The researches and hypotheses of Copernicus, Galileo, and Kepler helped to make possible the theory of gravitation which came from the integrating mind of Isaac Newton, or, as President Walter Dill Scott calls him, Professor Newton of Cambridge University. The American Professor Michelson, by his researches, helped to prepare the way for the new revolutionary theory of the German Professor Einstein.

3. THE UTILITY OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

If we were to recapitulate with President Scott the list of the names of the men whose researches in pure science have not only explored the far reaches of the universe and the inside of the atom but also discovered the scientific principles on which is erected the technological structure of our modern industrial civilization, we would call, for the most part, the names of college professors and quiet relentless seekers for truth in university laboratories. He has estimated that college and university research makes possible in a normal time the production of more wealth in America in one year than has been spent on all the colleges and universities since John Harvard founded the college under the elms in Cambridge. It was also estimated that the results of college and university research in the pure sciences as the basis for sanitary and hydraulic engineering, personal health and public health, save in America the lives of one million people a year.

4. THE GRADUATE SCHOOL AND ORGANIZED RESEARCH

In the complicated modern world, it was inevitable that research should be organized in institutes, councils, and big industries. Mr. Vernon Kellogg has pointed out that the research organizations are dependent on the colleges and universities for manning and recruiting their staffs. The graduate school is par excellence the training ground for research, organized and unorganized. In graduate research there is no immediate profit motive, and the student has the unadulterated scientific freedom necessary for training in research.

Deeply specialized as is research it should for that very reason keep its connection with all divisions of graduate work and never narrow its special eye to the wider implications of the smallest bit of truth found in the laboratory or library stacks or tentatively guessed on a walk about the campus or in some lonely nook in the woods or where you will. In the meagerly equipped laboratories of this university before the twentieth century and since, the researches of unpretentious scholars in the natural sciences have been recognized for their value to learning and mankind by scholars on four continents.

5. RESEARCH IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The social sciences, of course, are lagging behind the natural sciences. For the most part they have risen in recent times. Scholars in the social sciences have a tremendous task to bring their researches up to the needs of the times. Individuals in graduate schools and organizations here and there are doing heroic work, with civilization itself as the stakes of social mastery. On account of the complicated nature of our social structure, institutes for research in the social sciences are being organized mainly and naturally within the universities as, for example, the Institute of Human Relations at Yale. The Institute for Research in the Social Sciences is an indispensable reenforcement of the graduate resources and impulses of this university in the unexplored fields of the social sciences. Together with the pioneer department of rural social-economics, the departments of economics, education, history, sociology, psychology, and the law school, it is making realistic studies and significant contributions to the better understanding of the human and social implications of our economic, political, and legal structure. The Institute has had considerable regard for interracial relations with all their problems of human injustice and unequal opportunity in the present South. These researches in interracial relations are based on the human attitude that, with all our racial solidarities and wisely pragmatic expedients of social separation, especially here in the South, the two great races have fundamentally a common destiny in building a nobler civilization and,

that if we go up, we go up together. The University Press has made these researches available for the people of the South and has carried forward an intellectual exchange with scholars and institutions over the world. Five of the books from this Press have made the League of Nations list for international intellectual cooperation.

a. Research, Integrated Thinking, and War

Scholars, colleges, universities, and research agencies all over the world need to join their intellectual and spiritual resources in research and make specialized and integrated studies of the problems whose social consequences reach around the world and down the ages. The World War and the world economic depression have taken their toll in human lives, human well-being and happiness beyond measurement or imagination. Wars and depressions throw their cruel and sinister shadows across the homes of the people on all the continents of this earth. We, who, in our scientific pride, consider that we have mastered the earth, stand baffled in the midst of these two mighty foes of every locality and all mankind. The very fact of recurring wars and recurring depressions raises a question as to the quality of our education and the sincerity of our religion. The people in a world in which such depressions and wars can recur are not yet intellectual and spiritual in the control of their institutions. The nature of the wars and depressions illustrate the complex structure of life and the world. They make necessary greater depths in specialization and a new integration of old and new knowledge in all fields for a better understanding of the problems and the processes of solution. The explanation that war is caused by economic interests is too simple to be true to the complex nature of human beings and human society. The human being carries around as part of his structure and heritage biological, psychological, anthropological, historical, economic, political, philosophical and spiritual equipment. Human society is as complex as the human life implicated in its framework. Wars may come from springs deep in the structure of human beings or deep in the structure of human society or both. It is the

heroic task of biology, psychology, and all the social sciences to try to light up the origins of war and work out its social control and abolition. On the surface it is clear that science and technology have with power engines, farms, factories, stores, banks, ocean lanes, rails, cables and concrete roads, flung across the earth the mechanical framework of a mighty economic structure. A pistol shot in remote Serajevo or a stock market crash in Wall Street causes repercussions around the world. A Slavic student, in killing a German archduke, precipitated national antagonisms, imperial ambitions, economic rivalries, and released human passions and the dynamic energies of the peoples of two hemispheres which caused two million American soldiers to cross an ocean and left ten million dead on the battlefields of three continents. Press a trigger in a village or press a button in an office and you may release pent-up forces that involve the nations and civilization. This interdependent world economic structure has thrust through the national boundaries which would hedge it about. We should, out of regard for the values of nationality, not set nationalism over against mankind but rather work through the nations and all available international organizations for the preservation of the nations and the salvation of the human race. The social scientist is up against an almost impenetrable jungle in many regions of knowledge. He finds himself on the fringe of the wilderness in an internationally lawless world. From the pure research in colleges and universities have come the scientific findings and ideas which became the technological basis of modern civilization. From the colleges and universities must come the findings and thinking which will become the basis for a more intelligent understanding, guidance, and control of the processes out of which come wars and depressions.

b. Research, Integrated Thinking, and the Depression

Research and integrated thinking are desperately needed now to be brought to bear on the great depression. The rhythm of life and business, the high and low swing of the business cycle, unregulated over-production, the hangover of

handicraft ideas with their controls in the age of the power engine, the dislocation of agriculture and the sickness of the coal and cotton industries, the placing of pecuniary considerations above the industrial and the industrial above the human and spiritual, destructive competition, prohibitive tariffs, the breakdown in the system and ethics of distribution and consumption, ultra-nationalistic politics in an interdependent economic world, the great fear and insecurity of the people, armaments, reparations and international debts, unemployment, hunger amid plenty, the misery and despair of the millions everywhere demand the most realistic consideration and high thinking of business men, statesmen, and scholars in the universities. Nothing less than an international enlistment of the most specially and liberally equipped minds and the most spiritually resourced personalities is needed against the darkness of this hour.

The colleges and the universities stand strategic at the cross-roads of a recurring transition in the history of modern times. They have, to our tragic cost, equipped us with only fragmentary views of human beings and human society. The universities are often slow to meet the needs of the age. In the transition from mediaeval to modern times, with its focus of forces involving the disintegration of the feudal order, the commercial revolution, and the religious revolt, the universities tardily admitted to curricular equality the revived ancient learning which was the intellectual ferment of it all. Close to the beginning of the last century the western world stood in the presence of the steam power revolution. The universities were slow to give cultural equality to the new sciences which, in their own laboratories, were to rediscover and conquer the earth, and refound the technological basis of modern society. Modern democracies stand face to face today with communist and fascist dictatorships. The people of the western world, already in the midst of the social challenge of the electrical and gas power revolutions, find themselves overwhelmed with three other great influences: the consequences of the World War, the world moral confusion, and the world economic depression. The stakes are too great, and catas-

trophic developments are too swift for the universities to stand aside or wait upon tradition for their course or vested interests for their cue. In the face of revolutions, dictatorships, and catastrophe, America, through the schools, colleges and universities, must learn to be true to her inner Americanism of freedom of the mind and equality of opportunity for all people.

What the classics meant intellectually in Renaissance times, and what the natural sciences have meant technologically in the industrial age, suggest something of what the social sciences in the twentieth century can mean humanly in the making of a nobler America and more beautiful world in which men and women can do their day's work and dream dreams for their children. Scholars of the first rank in all nations enlisted in high research can lay out the groundwork for the better co-operation of the nations in international diplomacy, disarmament, finance, commerce, culture, in scientific and social mastery, and catch the imagination and heroism of youth in the high adventures of the human spirit for the saving of the nations and the succor of the peoples of the earth who ask for the chance to earn their daily bread.

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE PEOPLE

1. THE EXTENSION DIVISION

It is the function of the state university not only to find its bits of truth and teach the truth gathered from scholars everywhere, but to carry the truth to the people that they may take it into their lives and help to make it prevail in the world of affairs. It is the ideal of the University Extension Division to make the resources of the universities, the discoveries of science, and the finding of the social scientists available for the people of the commonwealth. The members of the general faculty, the special faculty, the special library, special lectures, courses in class and by correspondence, bureaus, institutes, inter-scholastic activities involving athletics, debates, classics, plays and playwriting, and in an independent and far-reaching way the general library and the Library School all serve to carry or send the university to the people. The public schools,

teachers, men's civic clubs, professional associations, women's clubs and associations, and people in towns, on farms, and in remote mountain caves, all tap the life that is here. The universities should set their faces like flint against what is clearly trivial, merely current, or only novel. Yet the American state university should not, from a fear to assert its own soul against what in its life would be a new Toryism of exclusive culture, high tuition, and intellectual stratification, be misled into a mere imitation of European traditions and institutions. The state university comes from the people and should go out to the people. The intellectual life of the university should be quickened by contact and interchange with the people. They have a common destiny in the adventure of building a better state. The state university cannot, as the university of the people, be an institution of a class, whether based on section, blood, money, creed or intellectual background. Deep injustice anywhere in the commonwealth leaves its psychic scars upon university life; the well-being of the people makes more radiant the life of the state university. The state university can never lose the common touch without treason to its own nature and without drying up the springs from which flow the living waters of its own life. The state university is the university of all the people. It takes no side, but democracy and justice are on the side where it belongs. The university is organic with the life of the people and the currents of its life would flow back into the life of the people with transforming excellence and creative power. There should be no lowering of standards in the extension process. Its standards and opportunities shall be second to none and open to all to the end that we build a commonwealth in which shall be preserved democracy without vulgarity and excellence without arrogance.

2. THE SCHOOLS OF THE PEOPLE

The public schools are now and will increasingly be the community center of university extension and adult education. The university will not only extend and share its life with the public schools and the people but university men,

as citizens, if true to the traditions of this university made by men who can fight no more, Murphey, Yancey, Wiley, Vance, Alderman, McIver, and Aycock, will fight for the schools of the people.

The university is resourced in the public schools and the public schools are resourced in the university. They go up or down together. Now is the time in the midst of depression, unemployment, and educational defeatism for the Extension Division and the public schools to envisage and lay out the plans for a future all-inclusive educational program in the communities for the continuous education of all the people as a way to use wisely the advancing leisure, to substitute cultural content for merely mechanical contacts, natural creative play for artificial and empty excitement, and to lay the intellectual groundwork for a more general and intelligent understanding of and participation in the affairs of the world and its opportunities for a larger mastery of human destiny. Land to the west for more than two hundred years helped to keep open and free our American life. The land is closed but the schools are open and will help to make us free. Along the converging roads of the public schools, adult education, and university excellence, lies one hope of our American democracy struggling for a higher mastery. We cannot, in these critical times, which test in our budgets what we really believe in, cut the schools and pinch our way out. With the inclusive and continuous education of all our people we must socially invest, we must build, we must create our way out from depression into a higher prosperity and from poverty into a nobler power.

THE FREEDOM OF THE UNIVERSITY

Along with culture and democracy must go freedom. Without freedom there can be neither true culture nor real democracy. Without freedom there can be no university. Freedom in a university runs a various course and has a wide meaning. It means the freedom of students with their growing sense of responsibility and student citizenship to govern themselves in campus affairs, and the right of lawful assembly and free

discussions by any students of any issues and views whatever. This campus freedom carries with it a high moral responsibility. For the faculty, freedom means the right of the faculty to control the curriculum, scholastic standards, and especially matters pertaining to intellectual excellence; to teach and speak freely, not as propagandists, but as scholars and seekers for the truth with a clear sense of responsibility for the truth and a deep sense of the teacher's part in the development of the whole youthful personality; to organize their own independent association for discussion and statement of views, and as a basic part of the university's life help shape university policies by votes, representation, advice, and, may we hope, a larger sharing in the life of the people of the state. For the administrative head freedom means to take full responsibility in his own sphere and make decisions in the long run view of all the circumstances, to express views, without illusion as to their influence but with some sense of fairness, humility, and tolerance, on those issues that concern the whole people, asking no quarter and fearing no special interest. Freedom of the trustees means the freedom to receive endowments for this meagerly endowed university from any honest sources without fear or favor or strings attached beyond an honorable responsibility, and the freedom to make the institution within the limits of their responsibility to the people and its own high nature an autonomous institution in its administration, faculty, standards, admissions, excellence, and the budget which is basic to them all.

Freedom of the university means the freedom to study not only the biological implications of the physical structure of a fish but also the human implications of the economic structure of society. It means freedom from the prejudices of section, race, or creed; it means a free compassion of her sons for all people in need of justice and brotherhood. It means the freedom of the liberated spirit to understand sympathetically those who misunderstand freedom and would strike it down. It means the freedom for consideration of the plight of unorganized and inarticulate peoples in an unorganized world in which powerful combinations and high pressure lob-

bies work their special will on the general life. In the university should be found the free voice not only for the unvoiced millions but also for the unpopular and even the hated minorities. Its platform should never be an agency of partisan propaganda but should ever be a fair forum of free opinion. Freedom should never mean a loss of the sense of lawful and moral responsibility to the trustees and the people from whom the university came and to whom her life returns manifold.

But this freedom of the university should not be mistaken for approval of those who are merely sophisticated or who superficially exploit either the passing currents or great human causes or who fundamentally debase the deep human passions and poison the springs from which flow the waters of life. Such an abuse of freedom has the scorn of scholars whose intellectual integrity and wholesome life are a source of freedom. True freedom of self-expression is not the sort that leads either to self-exploitation or to self-exhaustion but rather leads to the self-realization of the whole personality for the good life. No abuse of freedom should cause us to strike down freedom of speech or publication, the fresh resources of a free religion and a free state.

Finally freedom of the university means freedom of the scholar to find and report the truth honestly without interference by the university, the state, or any interests whatever. If a scholar be enlisted by the state for research on a mooted issue, though such scholarly and independent report may be imputed to the university as an institution by powerful lobbies opposed to the report, the university will stand by the right of the state to enlist the scholar and the freedom of the scholar to make the report, whatever be the consequences. The real destruction of the university would come from the university administration's interference, or any other interference, with the report. Without such freedom of research we would have no university and no democracy.

These conceptions of the various forms of the freedom of the university are stated for the sake of fairness. The only recourse for changing such conceptions is to change the uni-

versity administration. This is not said defiantly but in all friendliness and simply as a matter of openness and clearness. It is said with no personal concern, for it is our faith that whatever the administration, the freedom of the university, gathering momentum across a century, and the democracy of the people, sometimes sleeping but never dead, will rise in majesty to reassert the intellectual integrity and the moral autonomy of the University of North Carolina.

This integrity, democracy, and freedom of the university comes out of its own nature. The idea and structure of the university evolve through the centuries under the impact of social needs and youthful hopes. The college and the campus, the professional schools, the graduate school, the library and laboratories, playhouse and music hall, the institute of research and the press, the library school and the democratic extension of the university's life throughout the commonwealth, are all gradually and organically being integrated into the idea and structure of this university of the people. In such a free university we will learn to see in every significant situation, personal, local, national, or international, the composing elements, whether geographic, biological, psychological, historical, economic, social, political, intellectual, or spiritual, or all. This organic university, with its humanities, natural sciences and social sciences, has the rootage of its growth in the experience of the race, the aspirations of the human personality, and the needs of a changing age. Out of the very organic structure and quality of the university issue its democracy and its freedom.

CONCLUSION

ROLL CALL OF PRESIDENTS AND MUSTER OF SONS

Out of the past come figures, living and dead, to stand by us in this inaugural hour in the woods where Davie, the founder, stood under the poplar and raised the standard of a people's hope. The lives of the presidents reassure us all with their spiritual presence and power: Caldwell, the first president, in whose administration for the first time in America a modern language was given curricular equality with an an-

cient language and the first observatory was established in an American college and whose communicated social passion sent Murphey to lay the foundation of the state's public schools, and Morehead to build railways to bind the East and West in bonds of iron; Swain, in whose time the university advanced to a high leadership in the South, and who, in the closing war days and reconstruction, was a conciliatory spirit in an age of hate; Battle, dauntless father of the reopening of the university, deviser of a separate group of graduate courses in the curriculum fifty years ago, and founder of the first university summer school in America, whose gay kindness will ever pervade this place and whose noble spirit still walks in these woods; Winston, lying stricken in this village today, a casualty of the life militant, champion of religious freedom and educational democracy who synthesized the classical and the scientific, the cultural and vocational in his own varied and brilliant life; Alderman, lately and deeply lamented, who in his last days with something of a premonition of the end returned in filial memories to alma mater, her sons, and her scenes where his eloquence long stirred the creative imagination of the people of a commonwealth and caught the ear of the people of a nation; Venable with his passion for soundness of scholarship and integrity of life, the symbol of the group of scientific scholars whose research and teaching won recognition among the scholars of the world, with us still in modest retirement these later years gathering flowers from his garden for his friends in the village where he once gathered truth from test tubes for all mankind; Graham, major prophet of university extension and interpreter of culture and democracy to the people, his name memorialized in a students' building on the campus whose ideals he helped to create and whose life he passionately extended all over the state as he identified a democratic state university with the life of the people whose sustaining power has returned a hundredfold since his going; and Chase, under whose leadership came the greatest material expansion and intellectual advance, whose administration gathered up the momentum and values of the past, added high values of his own, and worked a synthesis

of all, champion of the freedom of scientific inquiry in testing times, genial leader and friend, now President of Illinois but always at home in Chapel Hill. These chieftains and the hosts of her sons always muster in spiritual power in every hour of her need. Into the soul of the place has entered the spirit of an heroic woman, symbol of all mothers and women whose hopes and prayers have wrought mightily under these oaks.

With the university today stand all the state and denominational schools, colleges, and the neighbor university. Not in antagonism but in all friendliness and rivalry in excellence we would work in this region and build here together one of the great intellectual and spiritual centers of the world.

CHAPEL HILL

Here in Chapel Hill among a friendly folk, this old university, the first state university to open its doors, stands on a hill set in the midst of beautiful forests under skies that give their color and their charm to the life of youth gathered here. Traditions grow here with the ivy on the historic buildings and the moss on the ancient oaks. Friendships form here for the human pilgrimage. There is music in the air of the place. To the artist's touch flowers grow beautifully from the soil and plays come simply from the life of the people. Above the traffic of the hour church spires reach toward the life of the spirit. Into this life, with its ideals, failures, and high courage, comes youth with his body and his mind, his hopes and his dreams. Scholars muster here the intellectual and spiritual resources of the race for the development of the whole personality of the poorest boy and would make the University of North Carolina a stronghold of liberal learning with outposts of research along all the frontiers of the world. Great teachers on this hill kindle the fires that burn for him and light up the heavens of the commonwealth with the hopes of light and liberty for all mankind.

FRANK PORTER GRAHAM,
The University of North Carolina.

Credit Hunting Versus Education¹

IN THE exceedingly well planned program of this forty-fifth annual convention of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, one word stands out in the subjects which come before us for discussion. It is a word which lies at the very foundation of educational effectiveness, but one whose implications have been overlooked by many responsible for the proper training of those who day by day are taking up the duty of citizenship and of intellectual leadership throughout the country. This word is continuity.

No group can consider it more advantageously than one which like this is made up of representatives of colleges and secondary schools. For if such a group can cultivate a spirit of real solidarity, can resolve itself not into a debating society, committed to narrow views and what might be termed class prejudices, but into a unified force attacking with singleness of purpose intrenched ignorance, mediocrity and smug self-satisfaction, untold good will be accomplished.

Here we are met together to advance the interests of true education through the agency of Secondary Schools and Colleges, and in this enterprise a great factor is the proper transition from school to college. Better methods of college selection and of college entrance must be devised if our efforts are to be crowned with success.

To bring about the desired results certain ideals are essential. We must inspire in youth a vision of education as a continuous and continuing process; must make the transition from school to college a normal and orderly procedure; must insure the college opportunity to all who have the capacity for it and turn aside to more fruitful courses of action those who have not such capacity.

¹Address presented at the Annual Convention Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, Atlantic City, November 27, 1931.

We have made a fetish of our arbitrary divisions in the educational scheme. We refer to our interest in the primary school, the secondary school, and then, groping for a proper term, in higher education or education at the college level. And as we think in these terms we naturally drift into an attitude of time service. We set up a standard of form and not of substance. We adopt the language of the court and sentence our children to so many years of incarceration; we encourage the laborious process of adding credit to credit until in the fulness of years and by the simple process of addition our victim is set free. Little wonder is it that the majority of boys and girls become skilled credit hunters. Natural it is that in the halls of schools and colleges we hear the student proclaim that he got chemistry *off* last year and that he hopes to get English II or French III *off* this year. This conception of school or college as an institution where one's success depends upon getting something off instead of getting something on will persist as long as we think in terms of primary or secondary or college units rather than in terms of preparation for purposeful living. The junior high school movement has had the beneficial result of taking out of our minds the conception of the eighth grade as a jumping off place. Certainly there can be methods devised by which the gap between the high school and the college can be bridged better than at present. Surely we can find the way by which our youth may be brought to see more clearly the unity of human knowledge; the interrelation of eternal truths in whatever field they may chance to be. If we are to be worthy of the name of educators, as against that of mere drill masters, we must, by precept and example, inculcate the basic educational principle of following through. In this endeavor we must compose our petty differences and work in whatever rôle we are cast to play our part to the end that the drama may unfold logically and completely. American education, like the American stage, has suffered from the star system.

It is becoming more and more evident as we gain deeper insight into capacity and character that the limitations of individual students should be considered with the greatest

care and wisdom; that we must develop and apply with increasing skill sound intelligence and aptitude tests. Obviously the saturation point may be reached at the end of the sixth grade or tenth grade or first year of college, as certainly as at the end of the eighth grade or twelfth grade or at the end of the fourth year of college. And whenever and wherever it is reached we must recognize and deal with it to the end that we shall not waste teaching effort, shall not retard the students of real capacity by prodding the exhausted on to an arbitrary finish line which marks the completion of what we call the elementary or secondary or college course.

To accomplish the real purposes of education, there must be a flexibility and at the same time a comprehensiveness of training facilities and of vision noticeably lacking in times past. This is not to say that no great improvement has been made in college entrance technique during the past few years. Thirty-five years ago there were no generally observed standards worthy of the name. A few of the stronger colleges were giving entrance examinations. Many others maintained academies or preparatory departments through which students found their way into college. The selective process went on in the family for the most part. Only the most able young people were given the college opportunity. It had not yet become "the thing to go to college." Had the colleges then been confronted with the heterogeneous group which faces us today, their educational results would not compare favorably with those of the present.

It was about 1895 that four years of secondary school preparation for college entrance began to be insisted upon. Then in 1900 came the organization of the College Entrance Examination Board, which defined the college entrance unit and prepared examinations to determine students' ability to come up to fair standards. The Board since its organization has contributed immeasurably to the clarification of the entrance problem and to the construction of proper selective machinery. Its influence has been felt far beyond the group of colleges which require College Entrance Board Examinations.

On the foundation of the high school certification plan and the College Entrance Board system have grown in recent years many other experiments: the combination of the secondary school credits and entrance examinations; the creation of various intelligence and college aptitude tests and systems of personal interview for the appraisal of personality. Various organizations, such as the New England College Entrance Certificate Board, have contributed to the adoption of better standards. However, much remains to be done. There are still far too many youths in secondary schools and colleges who should not be there, and on the outside a vast number who, if given the opportunity, would take advantage of the best our institutions have to offer and would later make outstanding contributions to society.

Our slowness in attaining satisfactory results is due in part to the fact that secondary schools and colleges are not always in agreement in their definition of college material; of the purpose of the secondary school on the one hand, and the college on the other; and finally as to the purpose of education as a whole.

The lack of unified approach was pointed out by Clyde Furst in a study of college entrance requirements, in which he termed such requirements "the complex result of many factors, intricately related." Among these factors he cited "the belief of schools that they should provide whatever curricula they believe to be the best for their students and that such curricula should admit students to college, the school curricula thus dominating those of the college; the belief of the colleges that they should provide whatever curricula they believe to be the best for their students, fix their entrance requirements accordingly and thus dominate the curricula of the schools; the desire of the schools to be able to send all their students to college, conflicting with the desire to send only those who will do the school most credit; the desire of the colleges at times to secure the largest possible number of students, and the ability of colleges at other times to select from a larger number of applicants than they can accommodate; the desire of all concerned to give each student

every consideration, frequently made ineffective by such great number of students that no one can give them adequate consideration."

A concrete example of the opposing points of view which Dr. Furst so graphically described is found in Headmaster Windor's article on the unintellectual boy which appeared in a recent issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*. "Up to the present moment," he writes, "every secondary school has been the slave of college entrance requirements. Its first and necessary business is to see to it that the school course of each boy meets the specific requirements for admission to the college of his choice and any consideration of real educational values can have no weight whatever as against that necessity. The school which should today try to declare its independence and adopt the curriculum best designed in its opinion to fit its students both for life and for further study would find that at graduation its students would be barred by this technicality or that from almost every worth while college." He also refers to those who drift perforce to cramming and tutoring schools so that they may be "shoe-horned into college."

Recently there have been evidences of a greater desire on the part of secondary school and college leaders to cooperate, but there is still a general feeling that better understanding than that which now exists is essential to the end that entirely reasonable and satisfactory standards may be created. For example, the head of a leading private secondary school of the experimental type recently wrote me thus:

"If schools and colleges could understand each other better perhaps our ideal high school graduate and your ideal college freshman would have a degree of identity not now possessed by pupils leaving high school and by pupils entering college. My ideal high school graduate is one who has elected to investigate on his own initiative under the guidance of the faculty some field of knowledge with a degree of thoroughness not possible under the present system of college entrance requirements; he has done satisfactory work in English and one other language; he possesses a high degree of personal integrity and has some maturity in the management of his life. I do not like to judge him too severely by school

marks, intelligence tests, the particular courses which he has completed and the like."

The headmaster of one of the outstanding boys' schools in the East contributes this:

"I am not opposed to College Board examinations for I believe that thus far they are the best test for entrance to college that we have, but I do not believe, by any means, that this system will continue without many modifications and a greater opportunity for a more liberal curriculum in the secondary school.

"I am fully aware that we must have certain standards for admission to college. An ideal way would be to take on the headmaster's recommendation those boys on whom he would place his unqualified seal of approval. However, such a system would have many weaknesses, chief among which would be the temptation, by reason of outside pressure, to certify to a boy on the chance that he might be able to carry on. Then, again, no two schools have identical standards."

A third point of view is expressed by the principal of a representative high school:

"The fifteen units is out of date. This whole system of units and counts from preparatory school through the university I consider a very vicious element in our educational system.

"It is folly to express foreign language ability in terms of years of study. We have learned much in the art of examining in the past ten years. It is possible now to measure reading ability, and the foreign language requirement should be stated in terms of power rather than in terms of years of attendance in class.

"The range of abilities of pupils now in public high schools is so wide as to make years of attendance in class as a measure of achievement and graduation as a stamp of scholarship absolutely meaningless. We must re-define the whole business of certification whether for graduation from high school, admission to professions or admission to higher institutions of learning.

"We now have pupils ranging in ability practically from near morons to near geniuses and the whole business of estimating progress in terms of clock hours is out of date. It results often in compelling able students to sit around idle waiting for others to catch up."

From the college standpoint comes a statement of the Admissions Committee Chairman in a Liberal Arts College. He feels, after administering various entrance systems for twenty years, that about the only essential requirement is that a student should have the ability to read. By this he means the ability to read a piece of English poetry correctly and rapidly and then tell the idea which the author is trying to convey. If the student is headed for an engineering course then this chairman would require a reasonable familiarity with the elementary processes of algebra and plane geometry. Besides ability to read and to tell what he has read, he concludes, "The other sine qua non to every student is a high intellectual purpose in coming to college."

These statements all show the stirring of a desire for a searching inquiry into the effectiveness of existing entrance requirements, an earnest wish to break away from artificial and indefensible devices and to think of the student's welfare rather than the prerogatives of an institution.

Such impulses are not evident among individuals in education alone. They are being taken cognizance of by influential organizations which are devoting much time and thought to the entire problem or some phase of it. According to a recent announcement the College Entrance Examination Board intends to establish a series of validating examinations. These would not take the place of the present subject examinations and may be used in institutions which supplement their system of admission by school certificates with certain college board examinations given to those candidates who cannot qualify otherwise. It is planned to give these validating examinations in mathematics, English and modern languages. The examinations would not be given in June, as are the established Board Examinations, but shortly after the Christmas holidays. This would make it possible for the student to have his college admission arranged before commencement. It would also enable those colleges which section their classes to place the student intelligently.

The Educational Records Bureau, with a membership of some two hundred schools and a Board of Directors of mem-

bers representing equally colleges, independent schools and public high schools, is doing a constructive piece of work in securing and accumulating accurate and comparable measurements of the abilities of students! In an official announcement we read that the "Educational Records Bureau is committed to the belief that teachers and counsellors must learn the student before they can teach him well or guide him wisely. Reliable measures of scholastic aptitude and reliable measures of achievement are indispensable if the student is to be directed into those fields of educational or vocational endeavor for which he is best adapted. The college student does not suddenly become college material at graduation from preparatory school. If a boy is ever a college type of mind he is such from birth, and the differential needs of college youths at the age of six or twelve are as great as, if not greater than, they are at the age of sixteen or twenty. An earlier identification of college students will be a boon to student, parent, preparatory school and college alike. The cumulative records of the Bureau will be instrumental in such identification."

The cooperative test service under the auspices of the American Council on Education is experimenting in a field of achievement tests. This enterprise is being developed in a thoroughly scientific manner and the results of nation wide sophomore tests to be given in the spring of 1932 will doubtless throw much light upon a factor large in the consideration of a youth's educational career.

Writing in the *Journal of Higher Education*, Dean McConn says:

"The purpose of the Cooperative Test Service is definite and specific, namely, to provide a continuing supply of uniform, comparable and valid achievement tests in those subjects regularly taught in the early college years and generally in the late high-school years; such a continuing supply of valid tests being conceived as absolutely essential for any sound development of personal service for many phases of educational research and for any clear sighted or sure footed reform of high school or collegiate administration

and curriculums. We can never know definitely either what students ought to do or what we are doing to students until we have an adequate supply of objective measures for individuals and for groups."

Particularly notable is the so-called Pennsylvania Study carried on under the direction of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in cooperation with the joint Commission of the Association of Pennsylvania College Presidents and the State Department of Public Instruction. So much has been said at the sessions of this Association concerning the progress of this study that it is unnecessary to go into details concerning it here. Two points, however, should be stressed. First, that the study was undertaken at the joint request of the colleges on the one hand and the Public School System of Pennsylvania on the other. This in itself was a long step toward the ideal of continuity.

The second point to be noted is the interest which has been paid to the student's life history. Nothing could better illustrate the essential value of continuity in the educational process than do the findings of those who are conducting the study. Dr. Learned well says:

"In a sound relation of school and college respecting the education of a human mind, the first requisite, in my judgment, is the ability and the disposition on the part of the college to read and interpret a comprehensive and truthful record of the performance of that mind in its earlier stages. Such records do not now exist except as we are beginning to prove them in our own Pennsylvania inquiry, but if the college can be made to see their importance and demand them from schools, their development will be greatly hastened, much to the advantage of the schools themselves. In the second place, I believe that we should stop altogether the counting of these fictitious units and that the college should base its admission of a pupil wholly on a consideration of his merits as an individual likely to profit by what the college has to offer."

We who are engaged in college work in Pennsylvania look forward with much hope to the time when candidates for admission to our freshman class will come to us with the accurate story of their scholastic, social and other characteris-

tics clearly traced for a period of several years on the graphic cumulative record card developed by the American Council and by those in charge of the Pennsylvania study.

An experiment which should be watched with keen interest is one launched this year in connection with the Pennsylvania study. In at least three high schools groups of students with minds of real capacity are segregated in a curriculum devised for their special needs, a curriculum emphasizing continuity, which, in other words, follows through more than does the typical secondary school curriculum. These students will not be able to present to the colleges the conventional group of credits, but will in all probability be stimulated to independent thinking much more than fellows under the old curriculum. The colleges are manifesting their willingness to accept students who under this new curriculum do creditable work.

This is not the place nor is it necessary to enumerate all the activities being carried on by those who are interested in building better educational standards, particularly those having to do with the relations of so-called secondary and higher education.

I have referred to a few and have also quoted the views of several school and college leaders in order to demonstrate that the great swing of the best educational opinion is in the direction of continuity; of personal appraisal as against institutional accrediting; that there is a growing realization that in order to meet the needs of a student at a particular time we must be in possession of accurate knowledge as to his growth over a period of several years. We have learned by the trial and error method the folly of the quantity production system in the training of human beings. We have learned that there is no such thing as effective mass education. We are slowly learning that in breaking down the artificial barriers which we have erected between elementary and secondary, and more particularly between secondary and college systems, we are doing much for education.

And it was in the interest of securing a unified approach to the subject of college entrance, of emphasizing the es-

sential element of continuity, that I made a suggestion to this Association at its meeting last year.

My recommendation was that the Federal Commission of Education be requested to appoint a commission, made up of representative high school principals and teachers, headmasters and masters of independent schools, faculty members and administrative officers of colleges and universities, to survey the entire field of the relationship of schools and colleges, particularly as it applies to preparation for college and college entrance. Such a commission should be given all the time necessary to make an exhaustive survey and ultimately to present findings and recommendations. I suggested that the men and women constituting this commission be relieved of their regular duties for six months or a year in order that their entire thought might be given to this important consideration. The thought behind these recommendations was that the approach to the question which we now have is made for the most part either from the secondary school standpoint or the high school standpoint. Each is inclined to criticize the other. It seems to me that, by getting together and seeing the problem in the large, much good could be accomplished. Obviously no set system of entrance applicable to all institutions should be worked out. Perhaps we have too little variation as it is. Certainly one can defend the assertion that although there are enough institutions of higher learning in the United States today, there are not enough kinds of institutions. The purpose of the commission would not be to standardize but to clarify.

Someone has raised the question as to the necessity of such a commission as I advocate, pointing out the activities in connection with the Pennsylvania Study; the Cooperative Test Service and the rest. But would not a group of school and college leaders working together evaluate these several enterprises, emphasize the most valuable feature of each, and minimize the danger of duplication of effort. Certainly the college faculties would welcome a statement of the findings of such a commission because it would put them further on the way toward an intelligent comprehension of the whole

matter than any report which is now available. Under ordinary conditions the evolution would be slow. With a commission having the prestige which would come from its national character, the transition from the faulty to the desirable and logical methods of college admission would be greatly accelerated. This is not a theoretical situation; it is a thoroughly human one—one in which the interested parties have held each other at arm's length, as Dr. Ben Wood has rightly said, "the only common ground on which the high schools and colleges have stood is the fictitious system of credits and units which provides so much non-educational work for registrars and admission officers; and the experience of two decades has shown that the common ground furnished by credit units has not been sufficiently substantial to be made the foundation of mutually satisfactory and constructive cooperation between secondary and higher institutions."

I submit that it is high time that we substitute cooperation for criticism, education for credits, student welfare for institutional pomposity. I submit that such substitution should be nation wide and that the effort for it be given the sanction and the encouragement of the Federal Office of Education.

WILLIAM MATHER LEWIS,
Lafayette College.

The Junior Year Abroad

WE STORE the pigeonholes of our brains with facts and theories; but without a sense of relation and proportion such knowledge is of comparatively little value. Having established a reasonable perspective toward the facts and theories we are what may be called "educated." Most of our progress up to this point in our study is based on hearsay evidence. In order to convince ourselves practically and drive home our conclusions we should, to the greatest degree possible, be "on the spot." We should not study entirely through a spy-glass—we should travel and see the world for ourselves at short range.

If this thought is accepted, we must next agree as to the best age for travel. Not too early in life, because we haven't accumulated the facts to check up; not too late in life, because we don't have the opportunity to digest and pass on our experiences to others.

On approaching manhood, after a college course, most of us must begin the struggle for place—preparation for married life and the support of a family—the accumulation of a competence, in order to get outside the hard walls of competition and be able to indulge our higher tastes. Few, after graduating from college, are in a position to take a year off for study in foreign countries.

The idea occurred to me in 1922 that the junior year of the college course could best be spent in study and travel abroad. Our leading educators approved this. The American Council on Education, after full consideration by its Executive Committee, heartily endorsed it. After a close cooperation between European universities and ours, it was arranged that certificates of study could be exchanged and the student returned to his home college to begin the senior year with his former classmates and to graduate with them. Thus the benefits of the year abroad could be secured by the student without any loss of time.

This plan has been carried out with greater and greater success for the past eight years. Under it, there are several hundred juniors abroad now. They are in France, England, Germany, Spain, Italy and elsewhere. The results reported are of the most satisfactory nature. They gain a knowledge of local conditions, travel between seasons and get the desired perspective. Never again are they the narrow-minded Americans they were. They realize our merits and our shortcomings by actual comparison. Many students, with the consent and cooperation of their college authorities, go "on their own." There are some scholarships at \$1,000 a year, more at \$300, which are competed for by sophomores in all our colleges and universities. The winners have come from Yale, Harvard, Dartmouth, Princeton, Amherst, Williams, C. C. N. Y., Cornell, N. Y. U., Swarthmore, Vassar, Smith, Delaware and other state universities. Letters coming regularly from these students bring the most enthusiastic and satisfactory reports. They show appreciation of the opportunities offered and often portray an entire revision and broadening of the student's life program. Quotations from some of these letters may be interesting.

One young man who studied during his year abroad at the University of Copenhagen wrote us of his experiences as follows:

To me this junior year abroad has been of extreme value. Not only has it made possible my studying physics under the famous Danish physicist, Professor Niels Bohr, my childhood idol, but it has also given me a broad insight of a new type of life that I previously knew so little about.

Another, from the University of Berlin:

During the year, I developed a fair understanding of European manners and people, and a great admiration for the progress the German nation has made in recovering its former position in world affairs. . . . In attempting to understand a nation, nothing is so helpful as an understanding and knowledge of their literature and literary traditions. And I count my appreciation of German literature as one of my most valuable acquisitions in the past year.

From the University of Madrid:

My scholarship has given me the opportunity, and the necessary prestige, to meet men like Primo de Rivera; to have access to the greatest of the libraries of Europe; and to consult men like the Duke of Alba, Miguel Unamuno, and Maranon and Pittaluga. . . . I have found things in Europe I had never dreamed of in America—the poverty, the filthiness, and the slavery of the peasantry; but Europe has also the song of the laborer, and the favou-vivre of the aristocrat.

And from a young lady at the Sorbonne, in Paris:

I think that foreign educational methods are quite superior to ours; lecture courses keep up the students' interest much better, and one learns more through them than through the system of recitation hours which we have in America, and which now seems to be somewhat juvenile. . . . Four successive years in an American college, especially one that is in a small town, tends to give the student a narrow viewpoint.

A young lady at the London School of Economics wrote:

I feel very keenly the value of contacts between the youth of various countries. And I know there is immense advantage in having such an international experience while one is still in the process of forming one's ideas and character, and choosing one's way of life. I have a young brother and am delighted to say that my family have become so convinced of the value of my experience that they have arranged for him to study next year at the International School in Geneva. I want to repeat to you what I mentioned in my last report—that I am genuinely anxious to help future scholarship holders, and especially foreigners in the United States, in any way I can.

These young men and young women are worthy missionaries of good will between our country and Europe—they make a much better impression than the average tourist and bring back new ideas that tend to diminish prejudice and lead to a better understanding of our European neighbors.

In the interest of international peace this work might well be developed into a much greater movement.

MARCUS M. MARKS,
New York City.

Pending Federal Legislation

THE Seventy-second Congress has already witnessed a deluge of proposed legislation. Before the Christmas recess 6,659 bills had been introduced in the House and 2,419 in the Senate. The number of private relief and pension bills has been very large. These and local bills affecting the District of Columbia, which might well be dealt with administratively under general laws, continue to clog the machinery of our chief deliberative assembly.

Bills of special interest to education include the following:

- S. 4.
RADIO Introduced by Mr. Fess; read twice and referred to the Committee on Interstate Commerce.
Provides for the reservation of 15 per cent of radio broadcasting facilities for educational broadcasting exclusively and for allocation to educational agencies of the Federal or State governments and to educational institutions chartered by the United States or by the respective States or Territories.
This is the Bill sponsored by the National Committee on Education by Radio.
-
- S. 136.
CRIPPLED
CHILDREN Introduced by Mr. Hatfield; read twice and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor.
Provides for the cooperation by the Federal Board for Vocational Education with the several States in the care, treatment, education, vocational guidance, and placement and physical rehabilitation of crippled children. Appropriating \$2,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1932, \$3,000,000 for 1933, \$4,000,000 for 1934, \$5,000,-000 for 1935, to be apportioned among the several States in the proportion that their population bears to the total population of the United States, provided an equal sum has been appropriated for that year by the Legislature of the State, or provided by municipal or private contributions within the State. Appropriations shall be available for providing clinics, services of nurses and surgeons, hospitalization, care and treatment in convalescence, and reconstruction of homes. Institutions must meet the standards set by the Surgeon General of the U. S. Public Health Service, and must be certified

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by the Federal Board for Vocational Education that they have met these standards. Five per cent of the amounts appropriated will be retained by the Federal Board for administration expenses. Each State agency cooperating with the Federal Board shall make such reports as the Federal Board may require. The Federal Board may revoke the existing certificate whenever it determines that the agency in a State has not appropriately expended the monies paid to it.

S. 176. Introduced by Mr. Hebert; read twice and referred to
COPYRIGHT the Committee on Patents.

Same as H. R. 139, the Vestal Bill.

S. 355. Introduced by Mr. Glenn; read twice and referred to
CHICAGO the Committee on Commerce.

FAIR Provides for the participation of the United States in a Century of Progress, the Chicago World's Fair Centennial Celebration, to be held in Chicago in 1933, by the creation of a Commission composed of the Secretary of State, the Secretary of Agriculture, and the Secretary of Commerce; by the appointment by the President of a Commissioner at a salary of \$10,000; by the appropriation of \$1,725,000 of which not more than \$550,000 may be expended for buildings; and for the loan of certain government property as exhibits.

S. 481. Introduced by Mr. White; read twice and referred to
RADIO the Committee on Interstate Commerce.

Amends the Radio Act in the matter of the classification of zones, excluding non-continental territories and possessions. Provides for the annual election of a chairman of the Commission and for a vice-chairman. Provides for a public hearing before modification and change of licenses. Gives authority to require the painting and illumination of radio towers when a menace to air navigation. Gives control to the Federal Radio Commission of transmission by wire of any program originating in the United States for use of radio broadcast stations in a foreign country. Provides for the modification and suspension of licenses as well as for revocation. Provides rules and procedures before the Radio Commission and the courts.

S. 502. Introduced by Mr. Thomas; read twice and referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.
PANHANDLE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE Authorizes the appropriation of \$50,000 to enable the Secretary of Agriculture to cooperate with the experiment station at Panhandle Agricultural and Mechanical College located at Goodwell, Oklahoma, in making investigations and experiments.

S. 689. Introduced by Mr. Smoot; read twice and referred to the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds.
NATIONAL ARCHIVES

Provides for the creation of an establishment to be known as the National Archives, with an officer known as the Archivist, at a salary of \$10,000, appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate; a National Archives Council composed of the Chairman of the Public Buildings Commission, Chairman of the Senate Committee on the Library, Director of Public Buildings and Public Parks, one of the Secretaries to the President, the Librarian of Congress, and the Archivist; also for an advisory committee consisting of one representative to be designated by the head of each of the departments, to which may be added from time to time one representative from such other governmental agencies not under any executive department as may be approved by the National Archives Council; also a Commission on National Historical Publications, consisting of the Archivist as Chairman, the Historical Advisor of the Department of State, the Chief of the Historical Division of the War Department General Staff, the Superintendent of Naval Records in the Navy Department, the Chief of the Division of Manuscripts in the Library of Congress, and two members of the American Historical Association appointed from among those persons who are or have been members of the executive council of the said association by the President thereof. The Archivist shall have immediate custody and control of the National Archives Building and authority, with the approval of the Council, to make regulations for the arrangement, custody, use and withdrawal of material. Within six months after building is completed files approved by the National Archives Council covering a period to and including 1860 shall be transferred to the building, and at the end of five years files for another five-year period.

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S. 692.
NATIONAL
ARCHIVES

Introduced by Mr. Smoot; read twice and referred to the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds.

Provides for the creation of an establishment to be known as the National Archives.

Differs from S. 689 in the constitution of membership of the National Archives Council and in the membership of the Commission on National Historical Publications. Provides that the Council shall be composed of two members of the Public Buildings Commission and its executive officer, Chairman of the Senate Committee on the Library, the Chairman of the House Committee on the Library, the Librarian of Congress and the Archivist, together with additional members to be designated (1) by the head of each executive department or independent establishment that shall have deposited in the Archives Building from its files an amount of material occupying in excess of 50,000 cubic feet. Provides that the Commission on National Historical Publications shall consist of the Librarian as Chairman, the Archivist as Secretary, the Chief of Publications of the Department of State, the Chief of the Historical Section of the War Department General Staff, the Superintendent of Naval Records in the Navy Department, and two members of the American Historical Association appointed as in S. 689.

S. 751.

NATURALIZA-
TION

Introduced by Mr. McNary; read twice and referred to the Committee on Immigration.

Provides that the Secretary of Labor obtain from the copyright owner at a cost not in excess of \$50,000, a license to print sufficient copies of the patriotic poster entitled "Look the Truth in the Face" prepared by the late Edward Grothjan, to permit of the distribution of one copy of such poster to each person hereafter admitted to citizenship under the naturalization laws, together with the appropriation of sums necessary for the purpose.

S. 761.
ENGINEER-
ING EXPER-
IMENT
STATIONS

Introduced by Mr. McNary; read twice and referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.

Provides for Federal grants to aid in the maintenance of engineering experiment stations in connection with land grant colleges to each State of \$10,000 for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1931, \$15,000 for 1932, \$20,000 for 1933, \$25,000 for each fiscal year thereafter, wherever a State shall have made \$3 available for like periods and purposes for each dollar to be paid by the Federal Gov-

ernment, under such rules and regulations as may be made by the Secretary of Agriculture with the cooperation of the Secretary of Commerce. It shall be the duty of said engineering experiment stations to correlate their investigations and researches provided for herein, avoiding unnecessary duplication, and to cooperate with the various departments and agencies of the Federal Government engaged in engineering work. Such correlation and cooperation are hereby authorized and directed and shall be promoted and required by the Secretary of Agriculture in researches related to agriculture, and by the Secretary of Commerce in other researches. Bulletins, reports and annual reports of said stations shall be transmitted in the mails of the United States free of charge, under such regulations as the Postmaster General will prescribe. For the maintenance of, supervision over the work, and expenditures of the said engineering experiment stations, coordination of their efforts, and the general promotion of the purposes of this Act by the Secretary of Agriculture, there is hereby authorized the sum of \$20,000 per year.

S. 764.
FEDERAL
AID

Introduced by Mr. McNary; read twice and referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry.

Provides for the increase from 25 per cent to 50 per cent of the proportion of the annual receipts from national forests to be paid to the States for the benefit of the public schools and public roads.

S. 994.
NATIONAL
BOARD OF
PAINTING

Introduced by Mr. Tydings; read twice and referred to the Committee on the Library.

Provides for a National Board of Painting and Sculpture of not less than three nor more than five members to be appointed by the President, no person to serve for more than two consecutive years, and for a prize competition in the District of Columbia of works by living citizens of the United States, with three prizes in painting and three in sculpture of \$10,000, \$5,000, and \$2,500, respectively.

S. 1035.
COPYRIGHT

Introduced by Mr. Tydings, by request; read twice and referred to the Committee on Patents.

A bill to amend the copyright law, providing that a royalty once paid on articles or devices reproducing thoughts or music shall free the articles or devices from

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further contribution to the copyright owner, except in case of performance for profit. Reproduction on a coin operating machine shall not be deemed a public performance for profit unless a fee is charged for admission.

S. 1037.
RADIO

Introduced by Mr. Dill; read twice and referred to the Committee on Interstate Commerce.

A bill to amend the Radio Act of 1927. The Radio Inspection Service, now maintained by the Department of Commerce, would be transferred to the Federal Radio Commission. (S. Rept. No. 23.)

Status: Reported by Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce, December 21, 1931.

S. 1200.
NATIONAL

Introduced by Mr. Copeland; read twice and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor.

MUSEUM OF

ENGINEERING Provides for the establishment of a Commission on a National Museum of Engineering and Industry to be composed of nine persons appointed by the President as follows: an engineer, an industrial chemist, a manufacturer, three persons experienced in transportation by land, water, and air, respectively; an educator, a representative of labor, and a museum expert. Appropriating \$75,000 for the purposes of the Commission.

Identical with H. J. Res. 40.

S. 1204.

PASSPORT
FEES

Introduced by Mr. Copeland; read twice and referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations.

Provides for the reduction of passport fees from \$10 to \$5, and for the extension of passports for a period not to exceed six years.

S. 1221.

UNIVERSAL
EDUCATION

Introduced by Mr. Keyes, by request; read twice and referred to the Committee on Education and Labor.

Provides for the creation of a Commission to extend in cooperation with other nations education to all mankind. Commission to consist of the U. S. Commissioner of Education and two other persons appointed by the President, and appropriating \$10,000,000 for the purposes of the Act. As the initial program subject to revision is proposed "the removal of illiteracy from all mankind, instruction in the applications of science and mechanics to the work of the world, and the physical welfare of mankind or world health, international or world ethics, promotive of just and humane government the world over."

S. 1590. Introduced by Mr. Bratton; read twice and referred to
EASTERN the Committee on Public Lands and Surveys.
NEW MEXICO Granting to the State of New Mexico 76,667 acres of
NORMAL public lands of the United States in New Mexico for the
SCHOOL use and benefit of the Eastern New Mexico Normal School
 at Portales. Subject to the same terms and conditions as
 are imposed upon the grants made by the Act of June 20,
 1910, as amended.

S. 1721. Introduced by Mr. Thomas; read twice and referred to
FORT SILL the Committee on Indian Affairs.
INDIAN Authorizes expenditures of \$40,000 for a fireproof
SCHOOL gymnasium-auditorium, a shop building, and other re-
pairs and equipment, at the Fort Sill Indian School,
Lawton, Oklahoma.
S. 1772. Same as S. 1721, except that provision is for the benefit
RIVERSIDE of the Riverside Indian School.
INDIAN SCHOOL

S. 2162. Introduced by Mr. Walcott and Mr. Hawes; read
GAME AND twice and referred to the Select Committee on Conserva-
FISH STATION tion of Wild Life Resources.

Provides for the establishment and maintenance of a game and fish demonstration station to be situated near the national capital for the training of men to become experts in fish culture, game farming, and game administration, lending such trained experts to the States and to agricultural colleges, making available to schools and colleges and others the results of the studies relating to fish, birds and animals. Authorizing \$200,000 for the purchase of the site, and \$50,000 a year for expenses. The Secretary of Agriculture, the Secretary of Commerce, shall jointly prescribe the rules and regulations under which cooperation with States and educational institutions shall be made, and the division of expenses, if any, apportioned between the Government and the State and other organizations.

S. 2328. Introduced by Mr. Capper; read twice and referred to
BOARD OF the Committee on the District of Columbia.
EDUCATION, Provides for the election of a Board of Education for
D. C. the District of Columbia of nine members, to be chosen
 at annual elections, and to serve for three years.

H.J.Res.40. Identical with Senate Bill 1200.

H.J.Res.144. Introduced by Mr. Schafer; referred to the Committee on the Judiciary.
PULASKI

DAY Directs the President of the United States to proclaim October 11 of each year General Pulaski's Memorial Day, and to invite the people of the United States to observe the day in schools and churches or other suitable places, with appropriate ceremonies of the death of General Casimir Pulaski.

H.J.Res.146. Introduced by Mr. Ludlow; referred to the Committee on Rules.
ADMINISTRATIVE REORGANIZATION

Provides for the Creation of a Commission on the reorganization of the administrative branch of the government and the centralization of government. Commission to be composed of three members of the House appointed by the Speaker and three members of the Senate to be appointed by the Vice President, and three outstanding citizens to be chosen by the President of the United States.

"The duty of said commission shall be to make a study of government in all of its aspects and to report to the Speaker of the House and the President of the Senate not later than the opening of the regular session of Congress in December, 1932; (1) such recommendations as may seem to it advisable in regard to a reorganization of the administrative branch of the Government to eliminate duplications and to secure greater efficiency, economy, and dispatch in transacting the public business; (2) whether in its opinion the Government has departed from the concept of the founding fathers who wrote the Constitution of the United States and, if so, in what direction or directions; (3) what steps, if any, should be taken to counteract centralization, to restore the Government to its original purposes and sphere of activity as contemplated by the forefathers, whose lives and sacrifices established a free and independent nation, and to make secure to all coming generations the inestimable benefits and blessings of local self-government."

H. R. 57. Introduced by Mr. Chindblom and referred to the Committee on the Library.

Similar to Senate Bill 355.

- H. R. 110. Introduced by Mr. Fulmer and referred to the Committee on Education.
Same as Senate Bill 136.
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- H. R. 138. Introduced by Mr. Vestal; referred to the Committee on Patents.
COPYRIGHT Provides for the amendment of the law relating to copyright registration of designs.
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- H. R. 139. Introduced by Mr. Vestal; referred to the Committee on Patents.
COPYRIGHT Provides for amendment and consolidating the acts respecting copyright and for the entrance of the United States into the Convention of Berne for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works. Provides for a copyright term extending to 50 years after the death of the author. Contains the same objectionable provisions regarding the importation by private individuals of books printed both in this country and in the country of origin that were included in the bill which failed to pass the Senate at the last session.
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- H. R. 215. Introduced by Mr. Lankford; referred to the Committee DEPARTMENT on Expenditures in the Executive Departments.
OF GENERAL Provides for the creation of a Department of General WELFARE Welfare "to aid, encourage, and promote the public schools, churches, lodges, labor federations, farm organizations, organizations of war veterans and descendants of veterans, patriotic clubs, community gatherings, and other legal assemblies and organizations, so that all the people of the several States and Territories and of the District of Columbia shall have larger educational, religious, fraternal, social, and recreational advantages, in order to secure a better mental, physical, spiritual, moral, and patriotic development of the people and in order that the general welfare may be provided and promoted, but without impairment of or the infringement upon the laws, the rights, duties, authority, or responsibilities of the several States, Territories, and the citizens thereof, with respect not only to the public agencies and institutions herein mentioned and referred to but likewise as to all private institutions, agencies of said character in the several States and Territories, and leaving to all the people the fullest and most complete religious liberty, unrestricted right of free speech, and most perfect freedom of

conscience in the exercise of all constitutional rights," with a Secretary of Welfare at a salary of \$15,000, and an Assistant Secretary at a salary of \$7,500.

Provides for the vesting in the Secretary of full authority to manage and control radio communications and for the maintenance of proper film or motion picture service for the purposes of this act, such motion picture films and apparatus and such radio service, shall be furnished to schools, colleges, universities, churches, etc., etc., upon request, without cost to the people of the United States as patrons and users, and no admission shall be made when same are exhibited or used. It shall not interfere with the usual tuition, dues or collections that may be charged or voluntarily given in such churches, schools, lodges or other gatherings. Department shall pay one-half the cost of school books, maps and other equipment in all States and provides for the payment by the States for the other half, State authorities in all cases to select and approve the books, maps, and equipment to be used in such State.

Provides that commercial advertising shall not be permitted over the radio within the United States. Commercial communications shall not be transmitted over the radio except upon the approval of the Department of General Welfare, and in such a way as not to interfere with the uses to which the radio service is herein dedicated. Political organizations, or parties, however, are entitled to the service set forth. Authorizes the appropriation of a billion dollars for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1931, or so much thereof as may be necessary.

H. R. 466. Introduced by Mr. Selvig; referred to the Committee on AGRICULTURE. Agriculture.

AL EXPERIMENT STATIONS Provides for the free transmission in the mails of bulletins, reports and annual reports and reprints of articles of agricultural experiment stations.

H. R. 4593. Introduced by Mr. Kelley; referred to the Committee on Education.

OF THE UNITED STATES Provides for the establishment in the District of Columbia of the University of the United States for the advancement of knowledge by means of instruction exclusively graduate and special, including all matters of governmental concern and by original research and investigation for the benefit of mankind. Control is to be

vested in a Board of Regents composed of the President of the United States, the Chief Justice, Commissioner of Education, the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, the President of the University, and representatives one each from the National Academy of Sciences, the National Education Association, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the American Association of Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, the American Social Science Association, the American Bar Association, the American Medical Association, the American Historical Association, the Washington Academy of Sciences, and the Carnegie Institution; together with five other citizens of the United States to be appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the consent of the Senate; and in a university council consisting of the Board of Regents and of representatives, one each, from all such institutions of learning in the United States as have one hundred or more graduate students holding degrees at least equal to that of bachelor of arts and pursuing regular graduate courses of study, whose term is not less than three years. Full membership in the University shall be for those only who have at least such attainments as are represented by the degree of Master of Arts or its equivalent. For use of the University there is authorized to be appropriated the sum of \$25,000, the amount of George Washington's bequest for a National University, plus interest thereon at five per cent compounded annually from July 9, 1799, the date of his last will and testament, to the date of the passage of this act, and one million annually thereafter.

H. R. 4630. Introduced by Mrs. Owen and referred to the Committee on Expenditures in the Executive Departments.

DEPARTMENT OF HOME AND CHILD

Provides for the establishment of a Department of Home and Child with a Secretary, "he or she to receive a salary of \$15,000 per annum." Fosters education, home and family life, and child welfare. There shall be transferred to the department the Office of Education (except those functions related to the education of natives in Alaska), Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor, all functions of the Public Health Service of the Treasury Department in respect of child health and hygiene and family health and home sanitation, all functions of the Attorney General of the United States relating to the National Training School for Boys, except those func-

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tions relating to the approval of parole of inmates, all functions of the Board of Public Welfare for the District of Columbia relating to the National Training School for Girls and all functions of the Board of Trustees of the National Training School for Boys, all functions of the Federal Board for Vocational Education respecting vocational training and rehabilitation of children, all functions of the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture in respect to clubs, correspondence and extension work for children; the Bureau of Home Economics of the Department of Agriculture, and any other bureau, service, or office of the government engaged in fostering and promoting education, home and family life and child welfare as directed by the President.

H. R. 4697. Introduced by Mr. McSwain; referred to the Committee on Agriculture.

DEMONSTRATION PRIZE COUNTY . Provides for the expenditure of \$25,000 each year for a period of ten years in one county of each State in instructing, guiding, and assisting the farmers of such county in methods of soil building, diversification of crops, animal husbandry, fruit production, marketing of products and crops organization, and operation of creameries, canneries, packing houses, and other suitable industries and institutions for the assistance and encouragement of agricultural progress, and such other phases of the business of farming and of living on farms as may be deemed of greatest importance in each State. Personnel is to be appointed by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Board of Trustees of the Agricultural College of the State, in the same way as now obtains in the case of farm demonstration agents.

H. R. 4743. Introduced by Mr. Bankhead; referred to the Committee on Education.

REHABILITATION AND PLACEMENT . Provides for the appropriation of \$1,500,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1933, and annually thereafter, for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise, and their placement in employment. For each dollar of Federal money expended there shall be expended in the State under the supervision and control of the State board at least an equal amount for the same purpose. Appropriates the sum of \$100,000 annually commencing July 1, 1932, to the Federal Board for Vocational Education for the purpose of making studies, investigations and reports on the same subject.

H. R. 4757. Introduced by Mr. Reed and referred to the Committee
DEPARTMENT on Education.

OF EDUCATION Provides for the creation of a Department of Education "authorized to collect such statistics and facts and to make such investigations as shall show the condition and progress of education and of other community activities that vitally affect human development and to diffuse such information respecting schools and other social institutions as shall aid the American people in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems and as shall otherwise promote education and the educational aspects of community activities without impairing local autonomy or the responsibility of the citizens of the respective States, Territories, and outlying possessions to manage their own institutions whether conducted as public or private enterprises." Provides for a Secretary of Education with salary of \$15,000 per annum and three Assistant Secretaries of Education, each with salary of \$10,000 per annum. Provides for the transfer of the Office of Education to the new Department and the abolishment of the Office of Commissioner of Education, for the transfer of certain powers and duties of the Secretary of the Interior in connection with Federal grants and in connection with the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Howard University. Abolishes the Federal Board for Vocational Education, repeals the requirements for matching of federal grants and for federal withholding of funds, and transfers the remaining powers and duties of that Board to the new Secretary of Education. Provides for the creation of an Inter-departmental Council on Education with one representative and one alternate appointed by the head of each Federal Department. Authorizes the appropriation of \$1,500,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1932. The Department of Education is authorized to undertake researches in such phases of education or related activities at home and abroad as in the judgment of the Secretary of Education are significant in promoting the purposes for which the Department is established, and to organize and participate in conferences germane to the same.

H. R. 5489. Introduced by Mr. Cable and referred to the Committee
CITIZENSHIP on Immigration and Naturalization.

OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN Amends Section 1993 of the Revised Statutes to make any child, legitimate or illegitimate, born outside of the limits and jurisdiction of the United States a citizen of

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the United States, provided either father or mother be at the time of the birth a citizen of the United States, provided either father or mother has at sometime resided in the United States. Provides that a minor child born without the United States of alien parents shall be deemed a citizen of the United States from the time the child begins to reside permanently in the United States, provided the father or mother be naturalized or resume American citizenship during the minority of the child. Provides that hereafter there shall be no distinction based on sex in the law or practice relating to nationality, citizenship, or naturalization.

H. R. 5655. REHABILITATION OF CRIPPLED CHILDREN. Introduced by Mr. Shott and referred to the Committee on Education. Covers much the same ground as H. R. 110 but provides for the appropriation of \$2,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1933, instead of \$3,000,000.

H. R. 5872. IMMIGRATION. Introduced by Mr. Dickstein; referred to the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization.

Provides that whenever an alien admitted temporarily as a tourist or temporarily for business or pleasure becomes eligible for admission under any other section of the Immigration Act of 1924, it shall not be necessary for such alien to depart from the United States in order to re-enter this country. The Secretary of Labor is authorized to prescribe by regulation such a method as will permit such an alien to enter this country without application for a visa to be made to any Consular officer.

H. R. 6007. ETHNOLOGY OF AMERICAN INDIAN. Introduced by Mr. Byrnes; referred to the Committee on the Library.

Authorizes the appropriation of \$20,000 for cooperative work between the Smithsonian Institution and any State, educational institution or scientific organization in the United States in ethnological researches among the American Indian, and the excavation and preservation of archaeological remains.

H. R. 6188. MISSOULA METEOROLOGICAL STATION. Introduced by Mr. Evans of Montana; referred to the Committee on Agriculture.

Authorizes the appropriation of \$10,000 for the establishment of a meteorological station at Missoula, Montana.

H. R. 6392. Introduced by Mr. Free; referred to the Committee on Books for the Post Office and Post Roads.

THE BLIND Provides for the free transmission in the mail of certain books, etc., intended for the use of the blind.

H. R. 6397. Introduced by Mr. Swank; referred to the Committee on Indian Affairs.

UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA Provides for the acceptance by the United States from the University of Oklahoma of a tract of land suitable for an institution for the higher education of native American Indians, and providing for the construction by the Secretary of the Interior of a building thereon, provided the University of Oklahoma will agree to establish a college of Indian education and research coordinate with other colleges in the University.

A copy of any of the above bills may be obtained by those interested on application to the Superintendent of the Document Room of the United States Senate or House of Representatives.

The Length of Class Periods

I. INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

MANY years ago the North Central Association adopted as an acceptable standard for the accrediting of secondary schools the definition of a unit as five periods a week for thirty-six weeks with a minimum length of class periods of forty minutes. So great was the prestige of the association and so great the desirability of a place on its lists that almost as if by magic split unit programs disappeared from this area for all regular academic subjects and all work was properly standardized. Meanwhile laboratory experimental studies of economy in learning and in mental work from the pioneer investigations by Ebbinghaus in 1885 down to the present year have with one accord shown at least one principle or law of economy, viz.: that learning periods should be short and that they should be widely distributed. They have also shown that it is concentrated intense effort that educates. The implication of all these experiments, if carried over to the schools and under school conditions, is that two hours a week throughout a year would be better than four hours a semester, or again that two hours a week throughout two years would be more effective for learning than four hours a week for one year. Suggest this to a college faculty and you start an endless debate which only actual experiment could decide. We can't solve our educational problems by appointing committees to investigate and then count the votes. Not only does it seem likely from all that we know about economy in learning and mental work that our standard class periods may be too long—they have only an uncertain pragmatic sanction of appearing to work reasonably well—but it seems in the highest degree improbable, though uniformity may be an administrative convenience or necessity, that the optimal length of period and optimal distribution should be the same for all subjects or for that matter of all the units of instruction within any subject.

This gives point to the experiments authorized and approved by this association and the authorities of Iowa State Teachers College to be reported by Professor J. B. Paul. They are as carefully controlled at every stage as it seems humanly possible to control educational experiments in a concrete school situation. They yield the result that I think nine educational psychologists out of ten would have predicted. They are so significant, especially now that both students and teachers alike are in reaction if not in revolt in so many quarters against lectures and recitations and now that the principle is being so widely accepted of measuring actual achievement in some other way than time spent in the classroom, that similar experimentation at both the high school and college levels and with different subjects and different levels of student ability should, I believe, be encouraged or rather undertaken by this association. It is beyond the possibility for any single individual or any single institution to go very far in so complex a problem, but it is clearly one that ought to be attacked before confidence in the validity of the association's standards can be established.

V. A. C. HENMON,
University of Wisconsin.

II. EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

Obviously one of the chief functions of the recitation is to assist and stimulate learning on the part of the student. The question to be considered in this study is whether students who spend fifty-five minutes in class learn more than those who spend only thirty minutes in class. If they learn more, how much more do they learn? Is the additional amount learned in the fifty-five-minute period proportional to the additional cost and time spent? If it isn't proportional, what justification is there for our present practice in so far as length of class period is concerned?

As an introduction to the study it was thought desirable to learn what the present practice is in our institutions of higher learning relative to the length of class period and other related topics. The answers to an inquiry received

from one hundred American colleges and universities indicate that the following conditions now exist.

(1) The class period ranges from fifty to fifty-five minutes in 93 per cent of the institutions.

(2) When the number of minutes in the class period and in the interval between class periods is added, the result is sixty minutes in 86 per cent of the institutions. It would thus appear that in most of our colleges and universities, the length of the class period is influenced by the fact that there are sixty minutes in an hour.

(3) The shortest class period reported is forty-five minutes while the longest one is one hundred and twenty minutes.

(4) The present lengths of class period seem to be based on custom, size of campus, and the fact that there are sixty minutes in an hour. There appears to be no scientific basis for the present practice. In this particular study a comparison of the relative effectiveness for learning of a fifty-five and a thirty-minute period is made. The experiment was conducted at the Iowa State Teachers College during the spring and summer terms of 1930: During the spring term in the course entitled History and Principles of Education and during the summer term in Psychology I, Elements of Geography and English I. Three departments of the college, four different teachers, and a variety of subject matter is thus represented in the experiment.

The classes in these courses meet regularly for a period of fifty-five minutes, five times a week over a period of twelve weeks and the courses carry five hours of college credit. In each course in which the experiment was tried out a control and an experimental section were formed. The control and experimental sections were composed of matched groups made up of paired individuals, i. e., each person in the experimental section was paired with a person in the control section having equivalent ability. Certain placement tests, selected because of their power to predict performance in the courses, were used for the purpose of setting up these pairs.

The average enrollment in the control and experimental sections was thirty. The experiment is therefore based on

data collected from two hundred and forty cases. One hundred and twenty of these were in the experimental sections and one hundred and twenty were in the control sections. The control section in each course met for a period of fifty-five minutes and the experimental section for a period of thirty minutes. The same teacher had charge of both sections. The assignments were kept uniform for the two sections and were placed in the students' hands in mimeographed form.

For the purpose of measuring the amount learned during the course of the experiment, objective course tests were devised, varying in length from 236 to 366 items each. The course test was given as a pre-test at the beginning of the term's work and as a final test at the close. The gain made during the term was taken as a measure of the amount learned.

The control group made the greater gain in each of the four subjects. In one subject, Psychology I the difference in the amount gained by the fifty-five and the thirty-minute class was very small. It amounted, as a matter of fact, to only one-tenth of one point. The fifty-five-minute group gained 57.8 while the thirty-minute group gained 57.7. There was then really no difference in amount gained by the two groups in Psychology I. Speaking conservatively concerning the results of the experiment as a whole, i.e., including the four subjects, History and Principles of Education, Psychology I, Elements of Geography, and English I, we are safe in saying that the fifty-five-minute class period resulted in the greater amount of learning.

However, the crucial question is which of the lengths of class period is the more economical for learning, and in order to answer this question a comparison of the difference in amount learned by the control and experimental groups needs to be made. For this purpose we expressed the gains made in terms of sigma gains. The average of the sigma gains for the four control groups is 3.6, while for the experimental groups it is 3.3. The control group gain exceeds the experimental group gain by .3 sigma. The students who were in

the classes which met for fifty-five minutes each day, when considered as a group, learned .3 sigma more than did the students who were in classes which met thirty minutes each day. This will probably be more readily understood if expressed in terms of per cent. The control group class period exceeded the experimental group period in length by twenty-five minutes of 83.3 per cent. The control group having a class period 83.3 per cent longer than the experimental group learned 9.1 per cent more as measured by the use of objective tests. If the longer period, the fifty-five-minute period, is taken as the base from which to do the computing, the following result is obtained: reducing the length of the class period by 45.5 per cent, i.e., from fifty-five to thirty minutes, results in reducing the amount learned by 8.3 per cent. Obviously in so far as the two class periods are concerned, the shorter period is much the more economical.

The question naturally arises as to whether the shorter class period may not be a great handicap to the inferior students. In order to get some light on this question the record of gains made by the members of the four control classes was thrown together into a threefold table on the basis of placement test scores and gains made in the objective tests and compared with a similar arrangement of the records of gains made by members of the four experimental classes. The following statements based on these two tables may then be made.

(1) More students that were members of the thirty-minute classes made gains that are in accord with their placement test scores than did students who were members of the control group (experimental 53 control 33). Fewer members of the experimental group made lesser gains (experimental 35 control 43) and fewer made greater gains (experimental 32 control 44) than the placement test scores indicated they should make. Relative to the behavior of the members of the low third of the thirty-minute classes, the data indicate that they did not do quite so well as did the corresponding members of the fifty-five-minute classes. The short-class period, however, seems to have been an advantage to the better students.

The four teachers who participated in the experiment expressed themselves uniformly as preferring the fifty-five-minute class period. Fifty-eight per cent of the students in the thirty-minute class period indicated that they preferred the shorter period. Thirty per cent of these students indicated that they found it necessary to depend more on their own resources and work out the assignments more carefully on account of the short class period. Is it possible that we are spoon feeding our college students when, as a matter of fact, they would prefer to be treated as adults?

The objection may be raised that the course tests used did not measure all or any large part of what the student learned. Let us grant that the contention is true. If, however, these tests measure a fair sampling of what the students learned, then measuring all that they learned would not yield any essentially different results. The method here used is not essentially different from that found in industry. In developing a coal field, for example, a number of test holes are sunk and on the basis of the findings, the amount and quality of the coal beneath the surface is computed with considerable accuracy.

The objection may be raised that the most valuable products of classroom instruction are intangible and unmeasurable and that the results of this experiment are therefore misleading. Is it not highly probable that there is a high correlation between the measurable products of instruction and the so-called unmeasurable products? Is it not highly presumptuous to suppose that the tangible products are transmitted in the first half hour and the intangible in the last half hour? We sometimes criticize our churches on the ground that they do not take up readily with the newer methods of instruction. However, they have long since gone over to the practice of the theory that there are no souls saved after the first half hour. I judge we have all heard that remark attributed to President Hadley of Yale. A convocation speaker upon arising to address the Yale student body asked President Hadley how much time he might take. President Hadley replied: "You may take all the time you desire. We have a

tradition at Yale, however, that there are no souls saved after the first twenty minutes."

The objection may be raised, that while it is true there is some time saved in so far as the recitation is concerned, the student will more than make up for this in the greater effort he will need to put forth in order to master the subject. I am not acquainted with many college teachers who would have any serious objection to a plan of procedure that would stimulate the student to do better work. Suppose we look at the problem from the student's point of view. Well, 58 per cent of those who have had the experience say that they like it and prefer the shorter period.

Now in closing may I utter a word of caution. This study is too limited in scope. Too few cases are included to warrant any hard and fast conclusions. It does serve, however, to arouse some rather healthy suspicions.

(1) Is it possible that our present class period, built as it is to a large extent on the clock hour, is not the most economical length of period?

(2) Considering the reasons for its present length (the fact that there are sixty minutes in an hour), would it not be merely a matter of chance if it were found to be the most economical length of period?

(3) A thirty-minute period is revealed in this limited study to be almost as effective as a fifty-five-minute period and much more economical. What would be the effect of reducing the class period to twenty minutes? What would be the effect of having the class meet three times a week, twice a week or only once a week?

(4) This experiment was conducted almost entirely with freshmen. What would be the result if we were to try it out with sophomores, juniors, seniors?

(5) The very limited data that we have in this study tend to arouse the shadow of a suspicion that sophomores have learned to ride the recitation more successfully than have freshmen but that they have not to the same degree learned to master material when placed on their own resources. Is this true? This question can be answered only after a thorough study of the problem has been made.

We have all heard that remark about a university consisting of a student on one end of a log and Mark Hopkins on the other. Parenthetically we might remark that in recent years we have tended to emphasize the importance of the log. Is it possible that if he were to make some definite assignments, see that the materials are available and set up some rather definite inclusive objective tests that Mark might wander off into the woods occasionally with the assurance that when he returned he would find the student yet on top of the log. As far as the evidence is concerned, there would be fifty-eight chances in a hundred that the boy would say, "Well, Mark, I'm glad you took that walk."

We hear much these days and have in days past about it being the function of the teacher to draw the student out and get him to express himself. Is it barely possible that on the college level it were well for us to give the student an opportunity and the encouragement to draw himself out?

This limited study opens up a regular Pandora's box of problems that come out calling for solution. The same questions that are here raised concerning our present requirements in the matter of length of class period on the college level may with equal propriety be raised concerning requirements on the secondary level. These questions are too large for any *individual* to handle successfully. They are too large for any institution to deal with satisfactorily. Their presence calls for a bit of cooperative research, participated in by a number of institutions extending over a series of years and culminating in the accumulation of a mass of data that would serve as a scientific basis for administrative action. This North Central Association together with other similar agencies might well assume the leadership in such a program.

J. B. PAUL,
University of Iowa.

American Education During 1931¹

AMERICA'S expenditure for education in 1931, as estimated by the Federal Office of Education, was \$3,200,000,000. The number of pupils enrolled in public elementary schools during the year was approximately 21,211,325, in public high schools, 4,354,815, and in institutions of higher learning, 1,099,468. Private and parochial schools, both elementary and secondary, enrolled approximately 2,700,000 pupils in 1931. The total number of teachers in the United States is estimated at 1,029,000.

The 1931 elementary school enrollment was less than that of the estimated elementary school enrollment for 1930 which was 21,370,000. High school enrollment, however, jumped from 4,030,000, estimated in 1930, to 4,354,815 in 1931.

Because of a decrease in the number of children in the United States under five years of age, there will be appreciable decreases in first-grade enrollments within the next ten years, the Federal Office of Education points out, unless the trend, as indicated by Census records, stops. In 1930, there were 128,840 fewer children under five years of age in the United States than there were in 1920.

Of particular significance to American education during the past year has been state legislation enacted. A study of educational legislation in the Federal Office of Education, as yet incomplete, reveals considerable important legislation affecting school budgets and expenditures. North Carolina this year inaugurated what is probably the most striking example of state control of local school budgets in the history of the United States. The 1931 General Assembly of this state wrote into law the doctrine that "public education is a state function." The Delaware legislature authorized the governor to appoint a State Board of Budget Directors of 3 members to confer with those who seek state appropriations.

¹ Release from the United States Office of Education.

These directors report their recommendations to the governor. New Hampshire provided for a state budget system and financial control during the year. New Jersey empowered the governing body of a municipality, after a school budget has been twice rejected, to certify the amount necessary for school purposes for the ensuing year. Arkansas strengthened county control of local school budgets.

Far-reaching recommendations concerning the policies and activities of the Federal Government with regard to the education of American people were submitted to President Hoover by the National Advisory Committee on Education in its final report. Greatest emphasis in this report was placed on conserving local autonomy and local responsibility by working, both in legislation and in administration, away from recent tendencies toward centralization in Washington of powers over the purposes and processes of education. Never before has such an important survey been made of the federal relations to education.

In July the National Survey of School Finance was launched. This four-year study authorized by Congress is already delving into significant problems concerning school finance, in an endeavor to aid states and communities in more efficient and economical organization and administration of their school systems.

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers, directed by the Federal Office of Education, is throwing considerable light on the much debated subject of teacher supply and demand. During the past year nearly a quarter million elementary school teachers supplied data for a study of teacher supply and demand. It was learned from this inquiry that every year in every school there is an average of 1 new teacher to every 5 teachers in the school. "Mobility" of teachers can be specifically associated with the "size of population," statistics showed. Administrators in sparsely-settled areas find it necessary to select 2 new elementary teachers for every 5, while there is generally one new teacher named for every 20 employed in cities of over 100,000 population. Acceptance of new positions in the

same state and marriage are the two greatest factors affecting teacher "mobility," according to data collected.

More than 800 high schools throughout the United States have been visited during 1930 and 1931 in connection with the National Survey of Secondary Education by the Federal Office of Education. This survey, which will be completed June 30, 1932, at a cost of \$225,000, has been investigating the major problems of secondary education, and will furnish detailed reports of the innovating practices in organization, administration, financing, curricula, and articulation of the secondary school with lower and more advanced education.

Enrollment in vocational schools and courses during 1931 totalled approximately 1,125,000 pupils of all ages in evening, part-time, and all-day schools, according to the Federal Board for Vocational Education. The total increase in enrollment for 1931 over 1930 in this type of school exceeded 60,000. From 1918 to 1931, enrollment in all vocational schools federally aided has shown a rise from approximately 164,186 to 1,055,370. Apprentice and part-time cooperative training received considerable attention in the past year. Training of those already employed is growing in practice.

Studies made or received by the Federal Office of Education during 1931 reveal many interesting and important facts regarding the education of colored people. There are in the states having separate school systems, 3,326,482 Negro children of school age. Thirty-two per cent, or more than 1,000,000 of these, are not in school. Of those enrolled, more than one-third are in the first grade and 74 per cent below the fifth grade. Only 3.7 per cent of the total are in high school. Research in the three national surveys of education being directed by the Office of Education, and studies by the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, are bringing together vital facts and statistics regarding Negro education in America.

The past year has seen the schools cooperating with the President's Organization on Unemployment Relief to increase school attendance and thus decrease the number of school-age persons competing with adults for employment. A recent

report of the Federal Office of Education revealed that increased holding power of schools eliminated from the employment market during the past ten years nearly 700,000 boys and girls sixteen to seventeen years of age.

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

The Fifteenth Annual Meeting

THE Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the American Council on Education will be held in the new building of the Brookings Institution, 722 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C., Friday and Saturday, May 6 and 7, 1932. There will be three sessions: Friday morning, nine-thirty to twelve-thirty; Friday afternoon, two to four-thirty; and Saturday morning, nine to twelve-thirty. Delegates will be entertained at luncheon on Friday between the two sessions, at the Cosmos Club.

At the Friday morning session annual reports of the Executive Committee, of the Treasurer, of the Director, and of the various standing committees of the Council, including the Committee on Problems and Plans, Committee on Personnel Methods, Cooperative Test Service, Modern Language Study, Committee on Educational Finance, etc., will be presented.

The other two sessions will be devoted primarily to a symposium on the general subject "Who and What Determine the Major Policies in Professional Education in America." Secretary Ray Lyman Wilbur will open the discussion for professional education in medicine; Dean Luther H. Weigle of Yale University will open the discussion for professional education in theology; Hon. James Grafton Rogers, Assistant Secretary of State, will open the discussion for professional education in law; President William E. Wickenden of Case School of Applied Science will open the discussion for professional education in engineering. Mr. Will Shafroth of Denver, Colorado, Adviser of the Section of Legal Education of the American Bar Association, and others will join in the general discussion. It is hoped that the discussion will show how far the various professions organized in professional associations, how far licensing boards and other governmental agencies, how far organizations of the professional schools,

how far economic conditions, how far the raw material available in the caliber of students, and how far the universities themselves, shape the major policies of professional education and determine standards and the increase or curtailment of the number of men and women prepared for the professions.

The election of officers for the year 1932-33 will take place at the close of the morning session on Saturday.

Under the Constitution each constituent member of the Council is entitled to be represented by three official delegates, and each institutional member of the Council is entitled to be represented by one official delegate.

The meetings will be open to the public and any one interested in education will be welcome as an auditor.

A Program for Tomorrow¹

WE ARE gathered tonight to think about American education. Our changing times compel us to consider it carefully as a fundamental instrument of our civilization. In the midst of unrest, multiplied by the easy contagion of troubled minds, it is for us to pause and take a calm view, to make an accurate appraisal of the strategic place of education in American life, and to readjust its operations.

HISTORY AND CURRENT CRITICISM

There is no better way to appreciate the unique greatness of American education than to view its past, and perceive its fine responsiveness to the expanding and heightening aspirations of the American folk. How far we have come through education!

There is no better way to comprehend the inadequacies and the defects of American education than to compare what we have done with the hopes we have held for service to civilization. How far we have yet to go through education!

Our past makes us praiseful and appreciative, and our present critical and somewhat unsure. Yet it is only out of a past projected through the present to a future, only partially predictable, that we can discover accurately the burden which America once more places upon its schools. What then is to be the educational program for the bearing of tomorrow's burden?

FUTURE PROGRAM A PROJECTION

The educational program for tomorrow will not be so new that it will be startling or revolutionary; nevertheless its consequences may and ought to be tremendous. Tomorrow's program will be born of today's practice, criticism, and reconstruction as today's was born of yesterday's. Education

¹Address delivered before the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, Washington, D. C., February 23, 1932.

will improve as it has always done in America, as a continuous process, now accelerated, now retarded, continually revalued and continually redirected.

The rapid change in educational methods in America is not a discredit to the teaching profession as some laymen suggest. It is a fact to our credit. It expresses a brave effort to meet the new problems of a shifting world and to incorporate in teaching and administrative procedure our new scientific knowledge of human behavior.

THE DEMOCRATIC SPIRIT CONTROLS

There is one large factor which endures and will continue to endure. It hovers over the whole scene of American life and education. It is the persistent democratic aspiration of Americans to give themselves a more kindly civilization and to train a nation of cooperative men and women to operate it. The corner stone of tomorrow's program is this democratic aspiration.

DEMOCRACY A WAY RATHER THAN AN END

It must be remembered at the outset that a democracy focuses its attention on a way of going rather than on a fixed destination, and that it knows better the manner of life which it wishes to lead in its social journeyings than it does the end of its journey. Democracy is a system of aspirations, of reigning values, and essential procedures. These must be incorporated in human carriers or good citizens if they are finally to become part and parcel of the social organization process which we call American civilization. And it is through the educative process of the school and other institutions that we shall transform raw humans into civilized men and women.

THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS IS CENTRAL

The central item in tomorrow's program of education is the educative process. All other items are secondary, being either supplementary or reinforcing. It must be considered first, and the other items afterward. Until we know how we shall want to change or educate men and women we cannot

organize, administer, or supervise, arrange our health program, provide the needed physical facilities, or equip the schools with aids, material or human.

Since there is no time to deal with all the aspects of needed reform we shall consider the prime aspect, the educative process, discussing only inferentially the other changes which must go with it.

1. Motivation: Social Service and Individual Success

The first step in the improvement of the educative process is to democratize the psychological processes which constitute it. We must make the school's main business that of developing an effective social person rather than a successful individual. The fruits of education must be more largely public than private. We can justify taxing all for the education of all only when the results are more social than personal. This is not a new conception in theory but its full and effective acceptance in practice will be new, and its consequences far reaching. It will change radically the traditionally individualistic and academic bent of all schools below the senior college and the professional schools, that is of common liberal schooling.

The current school too largely gains its successes by using individualistic motivations. It stresses unduly personal success and competition, where it ought to place more emphasis on the services and satisfactions which come from achieving the social objects of the group, whether that group be a team, a class, a school, a club, a neighborhood, a community, a state, a nation, or a humanity. The new social psychology gives us ground to believe that the thrill of doing one's part in a larger task may be made as powerful a motive for work as doing the whole of a small job better than someone else. In the school of the future the altruistic thrill of participation should be used more often than the self-satisfactions of egoistic successes in ranking one in the class, in having better marks, accumulating more credits, more rapid promotions, more honors, more degrees than the other fellow. The pursuit of school distinctions which involve odious com-

parisons with most of our neighbors is strong motivation for sharpening the intellectual fangs and claws of a few, but it discourages the many and leaves all who learn in such a regimen without adequate education in the appreciative ways needed for democratic cooperation.

The school system should gradually get rid of the whole artificial organization of egoistic motivations which have had a long traditional use amongst us, displacing them one by one as the profession learns how to use stimulations and rewards which are social rather than individual, therefore personally more enduring and satisfying. The aim is not to make the school an isolated heaven of perfect social motives which would unfit its human products to live in an imperfect social world from which a sensitive soul would finally seek to escape. The aim is a new relative emphasis, the gradual displacement of a poor motive by a good one, the steady substitution of a good citizen for a bad or indifferent one.

2. Scope: Total Humanization and Intellectual Achievement

What has just been said about the new emphasis and quality of school motivation, suggests another far reaching implication already sensed by effective and experienced teachers. The school must be concerned with the whole personality of little men and women, each and every aspect, and must neglect none.

The school's new approach thus becomes wholly human. The body and the mind, the soul and the intellect are alike its concern, not at separate moments but all at once as coincident aspects of a healthy, normal, integrated personality.

The school as an institution originated in a narrow task—a merely intellectual one. Pupils were fortunate if their schools rose above an informational function. Beginners were in fact not much informed; they were absorbed in gaining the tools for acquiring information. We have not yet wholly escaped the momentum of that narrow tradition though we have been steadily breaking away, enlarging our concern with more and more of human nature. The new

program makes the whole jump. From now on we are concerned to aid children and youth to become wholly human, to develop every aspect of body and mind, intellect and soul, to relate and integrate feeling, knowing and doing, to perceive the values of character, and the efficiencies of action or expression as equally important with the full rational uses of mind.

The acceptance of such a statement has far reaching complications for all moments of the period of common schooling, wherein liberal education with its humanizing or civilizing purpose reigns, that is from the nursery school to the end of the junior college.

3. The Broadened Reach of the Curriculum

The broad curricular offering of the school will remain. The public school is not going to retreat to a narrower curriculum, of either old type or new. The enriched curriculum is here to stay. The school that is to train for life cannot be narrower in resources than the civilization it serves.

From primary grades to junior college years it will widen so as to touch all the problems of our time. It will give understanding of all the aspects of our present and our oncoming life. It will foster appreciation of the social tools through which individual men become socially cooperative—the institutions in which each and all of us must learn to play an effective part.

Nothing that is a concern to American civilization can be of less concern to the American school. Economics and technology will be just as respectable as school studies as they are insistent as social affairs. Educational valuations will tend to coincide with genuine social valuations. In the new program the socially important cannot be educationally inferior, suffering underemphasis or neglect.

In all the reconstruction of the curricular offering, the emphasis will be put on the meeting of life as it surrounds us then and there. The past that persists in the present and is likely to continue in the future is still history but it is part of a vital present. The culture that was European before

it became American is still European but it concerns us because it is now American. The problem of another land and its people is still their own, but if their affairs touch our own American life spiritually or economically it is vitally our problem and we must be concerned with it.

America, with its present and immediate future, is conceived in no narrow national sense nor as a narrow slit of time. It cannot be so dealt with in real living. But the emphasis here placed on our own American civilization and our own time, broadly conceived, is meant not as an excuse for detailed study of everything, but as a fairly stern standard of selection and omission in curriculum-making which will give no warrant to the retention or inclusion of subject matter which has only a remote connection with the student's genuine and urgent needs.

4. Fewer and More Inclusive Subjects

Nothing that is implied in an enriched curricular offering should give warrant to the idea that there will be a still further multiplication of studies. On the contrary, the curriculum with a wider reach over contemporary civilization will consist of fewer and more inclusive units of study. They will organize knowledge into intellectual vistas, which emphasize rather than exclude into learning approaches which will permit the student's mind to move as freely as curiosity and thought impel him, down all the highways, the crossroads, and the side lanes of thought-adventure and learning.

This is the meaning of the oft repeated attempts of the elementary school to approach its work in larger and more flexible units, such as in nature study, civics, language study, and industrial art. This is the significance of the urge behind the secondary school when it labors to introduce science as general science, to correlate the social sciences as social study, or to teach general literature. This is the meaning behind every orientation, gateway, comprehensive survey, or general introductory course now offered in the college system.

It means more continuous and responsible study of main

things from the nursery to the end of secondary education, where liberal schooling concludes its provision for seeing the world as a related whole and places the student before the many gateways to higher specialization that he may make a definite choice of the special service he will render to mankind.

In liberal education we are about done with the futile attempt to make each student a jumbled imitation of a whole university faculty of specialists. Every great university specialist that I know is first a man of culture and then a specialist, first a virile and sympathetic character and then a skilled and knowing expert. We have been working hind end to, and the new program will reverse the process. Hereafter we shall begin with breadth and end with pointedness, for breadth is something more than a vast collection of points and pointedness requires something broad enough to be brought to a point.

5. *School Tasks Psychologically Graded*

The problems of the child's expanding life must be graded to his ability. This is the only sense in which grading at school means anything vital. Each day's task must be above the child's immediate grasp but still within his growing reach. Only thus can life be kept dynamic. But no days task should be a monotonous routine of repeated tasks, conquered days before. Tasks too difficult are discouraging, and those that require no intelligence are boring. And boredom and discouragement are twin killers of human drive or interest.

The present method of school grading, as we know it, ought to be taken out of the daily consciousness of public, parents, children and fellow pupils, and whatever is valuable in recorded grading and appraisal, particularly that which we have acquired through new scientific techniques, should be put into the professional and confidential records of the school as an aid to diagnosis, guidance, and the redirection of the process of education.

A perpetual individual record card full of pertinent information of all types is a better record than a mere set of

term marks, and parents will be better served by a diagnostic and advisory letter based on the perspective of a whole career than by a routine report card based on the term's work.

The older system of grading and reporting was born of the earlier school system which tried to treat all children not equally but identically. It was the offspring of the competitive motivation of the older school which tried to spur every child by competitive ranking, some through the satisfactions of victory over others and a far greater number through the personal shame of various degrees of failure. We now know that the sense of successful achievement is more powerful than that of failure in evoking and directing a persistent creative energy of the mind and spirit, that reward is better than punishment as a psychological method in learning and teaching.

6. Adjustment to Individual Differences

The psychological grading of school tasks will at once bring to mind the greatest signal fact of our new scientific knowledge of human beings, that is, their individual differences. The new program must be fully based on that fact, but with a right and true attitude behind its applications.

It is not to be assumed as has often been the case in the past that the individual differences which confront us in the school room are largely to be accounted for in terms of natural inheritance. That is too simple a way to dismiss many of the facts: it leads to grievous mistakes. The limitations of a child may, indeed, be due in the first instance to certain inherited limitations, but they may also be due to an under-privileged institutional environment operating powerfully in the pre-school age or exercising a constant influence parallel to school life.

Whatever the facts are, and they are difficult to know accurately in any instance, it is safer to err on the side of ascribing too much to environment and too little to heredity, than vice versa. When heredity is not unduly summoned as an explanation teachers are prone to exhaust all the

versatile techniques they possess and seek some correction of obstructing conditions outside the school life. This is far more fair to the pupil and tends to bring the school into cooperative relation with the other educational institutions and forces which affect the development of youth.

When the profession recognizes that actual differences in children are often due to the accidents of early or present environment, to ill health, and to acquired interest or disinterest, then no deadly fatalism enters into the judgments of teachers. Whatever nature has done to limit a child, we can not help; whatever environment has done, we may ameliorate. And it is better to assume too much where we can be of help, than too little. Practical justice lies on that side of error.

In our adjustments to individual differences, it is necessary to set up a flexible standard. The simple standard of the new program is the one which asks with regard to the next step in the teaching of a child: Will it conduce to the pupil's greater personal development? If the answer is "yes," the step is right. If it is "no," the step is wrong.

We may then arrive at judgments and procedures that will shock our academic sensibilities, as when a girl is allowed to forego the next course in mathematics or a boy, more interested in modern life than ancient, is allowed to proceed with his interest without repeating a preceding course in which he may have failed dismally. But the business of the school is to educate as far as it can. And it is conceivably better to get more education in a lopsided way than very much less in a regularized way.

What we do now is something mechanical and rigid. When the result, in certain extreme cases, is too dramatically bad for human impulses and good judgment to tolerate, we make an exception. We do this when we promote on a basis of years or subjects. We do it again in making out the requirements and elections for students' study cards. It is all a round-about pedagogical process which corrects only the major injustices. We should abandon the system altogether in favor of direct personal judgments which are

likely to achieve minor as well as major justices. Initial right treatment is better than wrong treatment corrected.

Fortunately the trend of thinking and practice are generally favorable to the new attitude. We regard our schools, particularly those which stretch across the compulsory school attendance age, as periods of enriching experience wherein the best development possible is the goal, and we no longer make students reiterate their failures by repeating a course, when more is to be gained by going ahead with another. Considerable investigation shows that our dogmatic assumptions about the preparatory value of courses which we make prerequisites are wrong as often as they are right, and half wrong far more than half the time.

It is probable, too, that segregations of classes on the basis of ability will not be so popular as was once the case with us. The intellectual advantages have not proved to be so large as we had expected and the unsatisfactory emotional consequences have been far greater than we had anticipated. Probably a school class should be a society as mixed as cooperating groups are in life generally. Leadership and followership alternate in every group, and they are alternate roles in every personal life, shifting with the situations, problems and persons present. Careful observation of the way in which the world actually carries on in a democratic society confirms the policy and it may well be adopted by schools as a way to give persons with different qualities a chance to practice the skills of leadership and the appreciations of followership. At any rate the world seems to be in need of just this sort of social education.

7. Self-Education a Continuing Process in School and Life

Teachers do not actually believe it, but in fact they are prone to act in their dealings with children as though education begins and ends with schooling. How otherwise could we feel that we have an overcrowded curriculum. All we have is overpressure due to a badly constructed curriculum.

From now on the school must be regarded as mingled

with life, fore and aft, port and starboard! Education must hereafter be regarded as covering the length and breadth of life itself. The school is only the swifter and more controlled central current of education. Education begins informally before the child enters school and, if the contemporary movement for adult or continuing self education has any genuine significance, it goes on long after schooling is over!

To conceive of schooling as a mere part of the whole and continuing process of education will do more than correct some of our hurtful, false assumptions, such as worrying unduly over the fact that a child does not learn here and now, and as fast as we wish, all that we have set up for him to acquire on the basis of some average or standardized expectation.

It will put the emphasis on learning rather than teaching. Schooling will become mere self-education under teacher stimulation and assistance. In fact, the teacher under the new regime will become a supervisor of learners. What a revolution would result from this changed attitude and point of view! No need for teachers to be omniscient—merely omnipresent! Teachers and learners would then be permitted to learn something together. The teacher's ignorance would not have to be concealed, shamefully, and too often deceitfully.

The effect on the pupil would be even greater. He would have a new responsibility and feel a new challenge. The initiative would be his. The responsibility would be his. With each passing month and year his self-reliance and his capacity for independent inquiry and study would increase. There is not one of these qualities that does not represent a highly desirable trait in the citizen. Finally, the transition from schooling to adult or continuing self-education would be bridged more easily than it ever has been before, and the ominous gap between the education which the school gave and that which life now needs would not frighten men. Self-education can keep up to date, while schooling probably never can.

With this new conception of the school's process we might be tempted to ask why the number of students assigned to a teacher should grow steadily less and the cost steadily more from the primary school to the college. It might seem that the better trained, the more mature and independent the student, the greater service he could render himself in a process which is mainly one of self-education.

8. A New Type of Teacher and Teacher Training

And as a last item that can now be mentioned in a program for tomorrow, let me say that one has only to review the various concepts laid down in this program for tomorrow's education to realize that we shall need a new type of teacher and a new kind of professional education for his preparation.

Hereafter the teacher's human interest, sympathy and understanding will be just as important a part of his equipment as his academic and technical training, and probably more fundamental. In the best modern and democratic sense the new type teacher must be a thoroughgoing humanist regardless of his special field of scholarship. He will not be so much a teacher of subjects as a moulder of men and women. He will need to be a civilized person if he is to bring all the resources of civilization to bear upon youth, which is to say he will be liberally educated.

There are too many academic specialists in our public schools who know very much about a little field of study and nothing much about the wide ranges which make up the rest of life. And unfortunately they have been given preferment in appointment, promotion, and remuneration. And with what result? Steadily through the years departmentalized teaching has been introduced further and further down and it has not been particularly good for the child to be treated in uncorrelated bits. Effective humanization of a child requires that every teacher that influences him have regard for his whole personality. In no other way can education fully humanize.

Now it must begin to be clear that teacher training will need to be reorganized. The teacher himself must be a

characterful person, interested in people as well as in books,—a man of *this* world, in the best sense and not an academic recluse, avoiding and escaping it, standing aloof from and disdaining it. The whole world is open to him nowadays through books, conversation and the other means of communication which make vicarious experiencing more largely possible than ever before.

The teacher should be liberally educated in all the arts and sciences. He does not need to "know it all," but to appreciate it all. Hereafter no teacher should be admitted to an American teachers college who has not completed his secondary education—the period of liberal schooling. And the quality of that liberal education should be scrutinized to see that it is a liberal understanding of the twentieth century that has been acquired and not merely that of the nineteenth, eighteenth, or seventeenth century worlds.

If I were the state commissioner or superintendent of public instruction, I would not license or certificate a teacher for my state on credentials from any other state without applying the same rigid test of liberal outlook on our current civilization.

It is time enough to begin academic concentration and specialized training with the senior college level. Specialization has no place below.

What professional training in the narrower technical sense ought to be is too large a subject for present discussion. Only a few large hints can be given now.

It should certainly not aim more or less exclusively at the mere high mastery of a single aspect of knowledge and the collecting of the pedagogical techniques for transmitting it at only one restricted grade or level of education. Certainly, at the outset, the prospective teacher ought to see the place of the institution of education in our whole scheme of civilization. Certainly he ought to see all the aspects and parts of the educational system in a related and cooperative whole. Certainly he ought to know what other kinds of educational folk are doing under our system of subdivided services.

I am fearful of certain conspicuous trends among the teacher training group of professional educators. Of all educators they should have fewer of the diseases of academic scholars and more of the virtues of humanized teachers. But just now they are advocating more pay and more promotion for mere training of the type we do not most need. Just now they are playing into the hands of the ancient foe—the specialists of the academic life, trying to revamp their curricula so as to make entrance to candidacy for academic degrees easier for their graduates so that their institutions will be, not educationally and socially more useful, but academically more respectable. They have so many new problems to solve, and so many new efficiencies to meet, that one wonders how they can afford to be so concerned about something that academicians are growing less concerned about every day. It seems a strange reversal of conditions. Most of all we need the cooperation of the teacher-training profession if the educative process is to be the potent spiritual instrument of American civilization in its program for tomorrow.

HENRY SUZZALLO,

February 23, 1932.

The Carnegie Foundation

for The Advancement of Teaching.

Education, the Nation's Safeguard¹

NO WORDS of mine can express the necessity of universal education in a country like ours as impressively as do the words of George Washington. In his farewell message addressed to the people of the United States near the end of his second term as President, he said:

"Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened."

I am sure that every member of this assembly accepts the statement of the founder of this republic as a commission from a great commander. It lays upon each of us the obligation to do whatever is necessary to promote education in times such as these, when all the institutions of our national life seem to be in process of re-evaluation and reconstruction—none more so than the educational system.

The command of George Washington is even more urgent today than when it was first issued, for we find the governments of all countries giving ever-increasing attention to education. We observe the revolution which brought communism to Russia and find that schools flourish under the new régime as major instruments of social control. We observe the dictatorship of Italy, removed in theory and practice as far as possible from communism, and we note once more that education is the instrument used by the dictator to guide youth into the new ways approved for national life. We see the ancient civilizations of Western Europe, crippled by war and disrupted by economic stress and storm, opening new schools for the common people, making higher education free to increasing numbers, looking to the future for happier times when educated democracies shall be better able to cope with the problems of organized society. Even the Orient,

¹ Address before the Department of Superintendence, Washington, D. C., February 22, 1932.

aroused from its long lethargy, is organizing schools for the masses, seeking through education to overtake the Occidental world.

When all the peoples of the earth are beginning to realize that a free universal education is the only sure guaranty of civilization, shall we falter and withdraw from an educational program which has been one of the characteristic features of our democracy? There can be but one answer to that question. We are gathered here today to counsel together for the better organization and enlargement of American education, and our counseling shall not be in vain.

The present emergency has done much to teach the American people that all their institutions are interrelated. There has been some disposition in times past to think of schools as detached institutions. Leaders in commercial, industrial, and political life have seldom considered it to be important for them to spend time and energy in improving schools. School people have too often looked upon business and politics as subjects entirely outside the circle of their interests. The economic crisis has made us all aware in a new and vivid way that schools are a part of the general social order and that the curriculums of schools and their methods of dealing with pupils are largely determined by the conditions of life outside the schools.

Let us state in concrete terms the situation which now confronts this country. The industrial system has built cities. More than half the population of the United States has been crowded into limited spaces. These spaces are not adequate to provide children with the opportunities which nature intended they should have. A recent canvass of conditions in 257 representative cities revealed the fact that in the seven years from 1921 to 1928 the percentage of persons living in one-family houses decreased from 58.3 to 35.2. The narrow confines of an apartment, or even of a house, on a thickly populated street do not permit the children to play and work as they should if they are to develop normally. The city has erected schools as a part of its building program. Mark that not a word is said for the moment about what is provided in

the program of instruction. School buildings are absolutely essential factors in the solution of a city's housing problem. As mere devices to keep children off the streets, school buildings are necessary. There could be no cities if there were no schools to supplement the narrow living quarters occupied by the majority of the people of this country.

Are present-day schoolhouses too lavish in their equipment? The industrial system of the United States has erected great factories and warehouses. It has developed an elaborate system of highways. It has amassed great fortunes. This same industrial system has an obligation to erect for the young people schoolhouses which furnish ample light and air and space for study and play. Cities have taken something away from human beings, especially youthful human beings who are in process of developing. Cities must provide adequate substitutes for that which they have taken away. Without a school around the corner from every block of city apartments, the apartments would be intolerable. Let us be clear and explicit in our dealings with industrial leaders. Schools have a right to a substantial part of the earnings of industry.

Let us consider the situation from another point of view. Formerly, industry protected many children and housed them in its factories. The protection which it gave was, to be sure, sometimes a fraud, because it exploited children and profited by their cheap labor. As industrial processes became increasingly complicated, industry found it less and less profitable to keep children in factories. Of late years industry has not wanted children; it has shut its doors to them. Sometimes it has offered to the public the pretense that it is filled with the spirit of philanthropy. Many a law compelling children to attend school has been passed in the name of charity when it was in fact a law excluding children from industry.

Go, if you will, today with the youth who has completed the curriculum of an elementary or secondary school, or, for that matter, of a college, and see him in the market place or at the door of the shop offering his services. See him ask

for a place in the world of productive labor. You know how his application is received. More than five million young people were added to the school population of the United States during the decade from 1920 to 1930. Each decade from 1880 to the present, the population of our high schools has doubled. Since 1900 the population of institutions of higher education has increased fourfold—from 285,000 to more than 1,200,000. This social migration is not due to the caprice of youth. Great fundamental forces have been operating in American society. Those forces originated in an industrial system which has substituted machines for human hands and has become so complex and exacting that it no longer desires the labor of young people.

The veritable avalanche of human life which has descended on the schools has precipitated in these institutions a whole series of problems more momentous for the welfare of the country than are any of the problems which have come with the present economic crisis. This crisis is a symptom of a new social order. The schools have been struggling for a generation to prepare for this new order, while those who lead in the operations of our modern machine industry have given little or no heed to the change which has been impending for years. The schools have sought to adjust themselves to new conditions of life. They have exercised an ingenuity of invention far beyond that of industry itself.

How well we remember the arrogance with which business vaunted itself before October, 1929. How often we were exhorted to learn from business management how to conduct schools. The fact is that business was then and is today far less effective in rendering genuine service to the nation than are the schools.

I confess that I am filled with resentment when I hear the criticisms of those who say that the American schools are failures. There are the smug exploiters of society who have been driving communities to the brink of ruin by their greed and self-seeking. They have refused to adopt new taxing systems. They have refused to study social movements. They have been parsimonious with the schools, and they

have had the effrontery to pass adverse judgment on the experiments which the schools have been trying in the effort to prepare society for its new day. There are the exasperating critics who belong to our own fraternity, seekers after a little cheap notoriety, carping and complaining but doing nothing to clarify the situation. If the worst that our critics say were true, there would still be ample ground for pride in what has been achieved.

Very little imagination is required to frame an accurate picture of what has been happening. A short generation ago the upper grades of the elementary school and the whole high school were attended by limited numbers of pupils, all of whom were seeking the same kind of education. The majority of the young people of the country were leaving the schools before they reached the seventh grade and were taking their places in industry. The community found it comparatively easy to support schools because the attendance was small, especially at the upper levels. Then came the change, not primarily in the schools but primarily in the industrial and social systems. Great numbers of pupils of an entirely new type were sent to school. Teachers were called on to conduct classes made up of young people who had no slightest interest in the traditional subjects. Although the teachers had not been trained by society to give instruction in new subjects, they willingly tried as best they could to meet the situation forced upon them. Many teachers equipped to teach Latin or mathematics tried to organize courses in English and science and the arts. Society, be it repeated, made no adequate provision for the reception in the schools of the young people whom it crowded into those institutions. It was the teachers who met the situation, not the industrial system. The United States Office of Education is authority for the statement that the high schools of 1890 taught nine subjects whereas the high schools of today include in their programs as many as two hundred and fifty subjects. It is no wonder that some of the new courses are open to criticism. They are emergency measures intended to provide for young people who have been pushed out of industry. Even the elementary

grades have been obliged to change the content of their courses in the effort to keep pupils interested and alert. The institutions of higher education have expanded their curriculums to include commerce and forestry, agriculture and engineering, and other new lines of information and training wholly absent from their programs of instruction a generation ago.

Some of the additions to school programs of instruction have been made because new bodies of knowledge have accumulated in recent years. It should not be overlooked, however, that the impulse which stimulates man to seek new bodies of knowledge originates in modern civilization itself. Knowledge grows in response to the demands of life. Every development of modern life has compelled the curriculums of the schools to expand.

Of course, the introduction of new courses has been slow. Even today some schools are unable to offer suitable instruction to their pupils. I remember going some years ago, as a member of the staff of a state school survey, to visit a small rural high school. I climbed up a steep hillside and found some eighty or ninety pupils in a school building which had no equipment but fixed desks and bare walls. The rooms of this school were obviously intended for textbook courses of the traditional type. There were three teachers, including the principal, a young and inexperienced college graduate. The school was in a continuous uproar. I stayed until school was dismissed, or, perhaps I should say, until the session broke up for the day. I sat down with the principal and asked him what was the matter. He answered by saying that the pupils were not interested in their studies. "What are they interested in?" I asked. The answer was one of the most revealing I have ever heard. "What are they interested in?" he replied. "The bus ride." The bus ride took those children out of their squalid homes. It gave them companionship. It carried them along one of industry's new highways. It took them up the hillside and deposited them in a place where society unfortunately had made no adequate provision for their reception. Society sent them where there was none of

the thrill of the bus ride, where there were no contacts with the productive industries which they were eager to enter. They were not interested. Who was to blame? The three teachers, the traditional subjects of the curriculum, or the industrial and social systems, which sent to a school erected for one purpose young people who were absolutely unadjusted to that purpose?

Restless, uninterested pupils express emphatically, though not intelligently, the demand of society for a new program of instruction. A new program of instruction cannot be developed in a day or a year. It requires the highest intelligence to prepare new courses adapted to the demands of a new type of life. Not only so, but, when schools begin to experiment in the organization of new courses, it always happens that some members of the older generation charge the schools with being full of fads and frills. In the city in which I live there has been much criticism of the schools because an industrial high school for girls teaches millinery. A very good way to answer this criticism would, in my judgment, be for the city to require the persons who object to millinery to interest the girls in that industrial high school in a traditional subject of unquestioned respectability, such as Latin or trigonometry.

The schools stand between the generation which is passing out and has no adequate understanding of the new social order and the oncoming generation, which is eager to take its part in the world and unwilling to be bound by the fetters of a narrow program conceived and established in a day when machinery was new and cities were uncommon.

I have perhaps spent more time than I should in discussing the past. Our meeting today is far more concerned with the future than it is with society's failure to recognize its duty to young people. Our present task is one of consolidation and organization, of improvement and amplification, of education.

After all, there is a hopeful possibility of inspiring American society with enthusiasm for a new educational program. The individual parents of this country are eager to provide their children with opportunities which were denied to themselves.

The increase in school population is the aggregate result of many a domestic conference in which it was decided that the family must make a sacrifice in order that its younger members may be equipped as fully as possible for success in life. Even when the parents who send their children to school pass through the period of emotional disturbance which always attends the paying of taxes, they are eagerly desirous of securing advantages for their children. If we can keep the parent as taxpayer fully conscious of his duty as a parent, adequate support can be secured for the schools.

A striking exhibition of the fundamental American attitude toward education has been furnished during the past few months by the citizens of the state of North Carolina. That state, which recently passed a new school law, has witnessed some fifteen local referendums on school support. Each of these referendums was initiated for the purpose of reducing local taxes. Each referendum was made possible by a petition signed by 25 per cent of the voters of the district. The campaigns which preceded the referendums were so clear in the issues which they presented that every one of the referendums resulted in a vote favorable to the continuation of local taxes and the maintenance of the schools.

With the assurance which such examples supply, school administrators can well afford to attack with new courage and zeal the problems of the schools. We have not yet reached the highest levels to which we can attain. We have developed many new courses to meet the needs of modern life. We can now ask whether it is possible to make the present courses better and whether it is desirable to introduce into the curriculum new courses which will add essential elements to the program of instruction.

I believe that we can reorganize instruction in high schools and colleges so as to provide more compact and therefore more useful courses. I venture the rough estimate that the two hundred and fifty subjects now taught in the high schools of the United States can be reorganized into some ninety or a hundred substantial courses. At the college level the process of rearranging the contents of courses has made rapid progress

in recent years. Orientation courses, or general-survey courses, as they are sometimes called, have gathered up the scattered findings of specialists and are presenting to students the essentials of large fields of knowledge. The curriculum of the elementary school has been reorganized in such an efficient way that the lower grades cover adequately the rudimentary subjects. The upper grades are detaching themselves from the lower school and are taking on the pattern of the high school. All these changes are alike in that they are consolidating and systematizing the courses which were invented to meet the needs of present-day society. The reorganization thus hopefully begun calls for the best intelligence of our profession. Not only so, but it is our duty to show communities how important it is for the young people of the nation that time and energy be expended in this labor of reconstructing the curriculum.

Boards of education are in the habit of spending public money on teaching. They do not always understand that there is a function of the educational system quite as important as teaching, that is, the function of collecting materials to be taught and of arranging these materials so as to make them most valuable to pupils. If the world were static and if a subject of instruction once introduced into the school program could always be taught in exactly the same way generation after generation, school boards might possibly be justified in asking teachers to devote all their energies to mere routine teaching. We all know, however, that the world is not static and that the schools cannot be content to repeat the same materials year after year. Therefore, school boards must be persuaded to provide for constant and vigorous reorganization of materials of instruction. My recommendation, therefore, is that we enlist the cooperation of communities through their representatives on boards of education in a better organization of the school program. I have tried to lay the foundations for a campaign looking toward this better organization by pointing out that society is responsible for the present state of the schools and that society in general is obligated to cooperate with school people.

in perfecting educational institutions and adjusting them to the needs of modern life.

If I could have my way, I would bring it to pass that the leading citizens of every community would come together and discuss education, not as a political or financial issue but as one of society's greatest undertakings. I do not believe that the community as a whole realizes its obligations to the schools. If we of the schools have been remiss in not seeing to it that the schools receive adequate public attention, let us resolve today that we will be more active in bringing together the leaders and informing them with regard to the experiments through which we are reorganizing the schools.

May I make a second recommendation. Man has been so busy compelling the material world to serve him that he has not taken time to understand the social institutions which he has invented. Especially is it true of our own nation that we have expended our energy in pioneering. We have swept across the continent and mastered its physical resources. Today we are discovering that the material resources which we have accumulated may be our destruction unless we learn what government is and what transportation and communication do to human beings. We do not know what money is and how it determines the progress or lack of progress of nations and of the world.

It would, of course, be foolish to hope that we can overcome our ignorance regarding social institutions and social forces in a day. It is even more foolish to omit from the program of our public schools the study of social institutions. We teach pupils in the elementary schools to compute taxes, but we do not tell them about taxes. We teach pupils in the high schools the history of ancient states and their problems, but we dare not discuss the urgent present-day problem of who shall own public utilities in the cities of the United States. We seem to be afraid that some local banker or member of the board of education, or the Federal Trade Commission will interfere if we discuss public utilities. The Federal Trade Commission has indeed in recent years practically banished the topic of public utilities from the high schools of the United

States. I do not have the honor of acquaintance with the gentlemen of this commission, but I am quite sure that the Federal Trade Commission is not so constituted that it can be trusted with the power to determine either positively or negatively what should be taught in the schools.

My recommendation is that we who are directly responsible for the schools be the first to recognize the obligation to introduce the young people of America to a fuller knowledge of social institutions than is now supplied by American education. If I had my way, I would bring it to pass that the center and core of the school curriculum at every level would be instruction regarding the social order. I would teach pupils, when they use number, that they are enjoying the advantages of one of the greatest intellectual inventions that the race has ever perfected. When they study science, I would have them learn that knowledge is the product of long cooperative labor. When they study literature, I would have them realize that they are being initiated into the ideals of the civilization of which they are a part.

It is no simple task to transform the curriculums of the schools into instruments for the spread of social mindedness. I have referred to experiments in other lands. Communism has laid its hand on youth and has shown its determination to dominate society by compelling thinking to follow prescribed lines. Dictatorship has organized youth to perpetuate its undemocratic rule. It is our opportunity and our duty to evolve a plan of education that will provide every individual with that broad training which leads to freedom of the type guided by insight and understanding. If the freedom which our form of society boasts as its greatest virtue is to be conserved and fostered, our people must depend not on a political doctrine inculcated by drastic compulsion but on enlightenment.

I have argued with such vigor as I can command for a consolidation of the school program and for the introduction of a new core into the curriculums of all schools. What I have advocated cannot be accomplished by any single school system or by any loosely integrated organization. This

Department meets year after year, bringing together agencies which have great potential influence. After our meeting we scatter, and as single administrators we are comparatively ineffective in reconstructing the curriculum or improving the attitude of the public toward schools.

Representatives of the natural sciences were able during the War to organize a foundation which has been powerful in promoting the cultivation of all the studies that have to do with material things. The schools of this country need an educational foundation which shall be the center of cooperative studies and of cooperative action. This foundation, if it is to be effective, will require resources at least as large as those now devoted to the promotion of the natural sciences. Should not this Department be energetic, together with other educational organizations, in bringing into being an educational foundation the functions of which will be the study of the internal problems of the schools and the development of a clear understanding of the relation of the schools to industry, business, and politics? What the educational system of this country needs is organized and informed leadership.

It is futile to wait for the government to move if the representatives of educational administration exhibit no power of concerted action. It is futile to duplicate efforts at scattered points. The wisdom of educational leaders must be focused, and their influence must be strengthened through cooperation.

If we say to pupils that the cultivation of intelligence is their highest privilege and duty, is it not doubly our obligation to organize for the purpose of bringing the highest intelligence to bear on our tasks?

In every part of this nation individual school administrators are struggling to meet as best they can an emergency which threatens the institutions we serve. There is an abundant lack of guiding principles. There is a very general lack of understanding on the part of the people of the United States of the unique character of their educational system. We have come to a time of stress ill prepared to meet its

demands. The emergency has revealed to us weaknesses which we must correct.

Only through concerted action can we effectively carry out the injunction of our great leader:

"Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened."

CHARLES H. JUDD,
The University of Chicago.

Standardization and Achievement¹

THIS Association, the second of its kind, was formed in 1895, since which time the Association has grown not only as to territory involved and schools concerned, but it has come to have great power and influence in the whole field of secondary and collegiate education throughout the land.

From the beginning this Association attracted the attention and the interest of the leaders in the field of education. The published proceedings of the early days report the addresses made by the great men of education of that day, and include such names as Angell, Draper, Butler, Harper, Jesse, Jordan, MacLean, Bryan, Russell, Paul Shorey, Nightingale, Harris, Charles Kendall Adams, and others. This meeting afforded a forum for the discussion of such great topics as "What Constitutes a College and What a Secondary School." It is difficult to over-estimate the influence on this Association of a paper read by President Jesse on that very subject in 1896. John Dewey read a paper urging the breaking down of so-called barriers between higher education and primary education.

A casual reading of those early addresses suggests that most of the topics that we are now worrying about were discussed with clearness and conviction in that early day. No one of today has voiced more clearly the danger of standardizing agencies forcing as undue economic burden on taxpayers in a period of economic distress than did President Angell of Michigan in the beginning of the activity of the Association.

The inimitable Paul Shorey said:

"I envy the perennial youthfulness of heart of those who come up to the discussions of large educational problems year after year with unabated zeal. I recognize the necessity of

¹ Address before the North Central Association of College and Secondary Schools, Chicago, March 18, 1932.

work. Though we can not hope to mould opinion or shape practice into perfect accordance with our own best insight and judgment, every judicious and well-weighed utterance does something perhaps to stem the rising flood of inherent gabble that threatens to submerge us all. And so, recognizing how little we can achieve, we must nevertheless devote ourselves to the accomplishment of that little."

Even as today, the men in that far-off day were impressed by the fact that they were living in a new age. Even earlier Barnas Sears said:

"We are living in a new age; an age of new scenes and new arts, of thronged cities, of universal locomotion and communication, of swarming literary productions, of new ideas, of a humanitarian civilization, and preeminently of enthusiasm for education. We are here today to take from this proud eminence a retrospect of the schools of our common country for the last fifty years. It will not be amiss, at the outset, to glance for a moment at the schools of former times."

It was about this time that James McCosh said:

"What are we to do with all of these colleges? There are four hundred of them. Someone has proposed to burn about half the male colleges in order to benefit the other half."

They were likewise amazed at the great expansion of the secondary schools. Illinois registered 29,000 high school pupils, 3,500 graduates, and owned \$4,500,000 worth of high school buildings. The state of Minnesota had 10,000 students, 1,000 graduates, and over \$2,000,000 invested in buildings.

Michigan had taken the lead in accepting students from certain high schools on certificate. There was widespread recognition of the desirability of erecting and maintaining the educational ladder wherein it would be possible for a child to start at the bottom and go to the top. The need for this unification had just been recognized by the National Education Association in a report prepared by the Committee of Ten which William T. Harris has said was the most important educational document ever prepared in this country up to that time. Thus, in the spirit of the time, these various asso-

ciations were formed for the purpose of establishing a clearer relationship between the schools of secondary and collegiate level.

It is a noteworthy fact that during the early years of this Association the members were content to read serious papers and to have sharp and witty discussions relative to the various educational practices in improving the secondary schools and colleges.

Not until 1903 did this Association seriously face the question of setting up definite standards to become operative throughout the territory. This was done notwithstanding the hesitation of many leading educators, including President Draper of Illinois, President Bryan of the University of Indiana, President Angell of the University of Michigan, and President Jordan of Leland Stanford. President Jordan, in his address before this Association, was most bitter in his criticism of standardization. He said:

"The most hopeful thing in the present situation is the condition of absolute chaos into which we are drifting, because it means the individualization of teachers and the opportunity for students to get whatever they want in some place or other—making the individual more important than the system is."

These fears seem prophetic in the light of the address made by Doctor Judd in 1928 in which he said:

"I shall have to content myself with a mere reference to the fact that some of the ablest friends of education are beginning to call in question the standardizing activities of such agencies as the regional associations of which we are one. These critics of standardization are asking whether we are not stifling our legitimate experimentations by our efforts to compel institutions to meet standards."

Criticism had been previously expressed in vigorous terms by President Eliot of Harvard and President Wilbur of Stanford. Superintendent Prunty of Tulsa and President Capen of Buffalo expressed before this meeting last year similar views, and within the month Doctor Hutchins, of Chicago, has expressed himself with equal concern. Thus it is apparent that the elaborate schemes of standardization

which have been expressed more fully by this Association than by any other agency in America, are now being challenged.

Few of us realize the rapid growth in power which has been exercised by this organization. Our current budget is in sharp contrast to that of the early years. The first commission for the study of English included five members with an expense account of \$50, which had been raised from \$25! Since that modest beginning, we have witnessed the development of standards that have affected almost every conceivable phase of school work. We have standardized school years, school months, school weeks, school days, school hours and school minutes in terms of units, credits, points, majors. At the rate we have been going in recent years, we will soon interpret education in terms of split seconds.

We have set up standards of study for all phases of subject matter, including the classics and English and Physics and Chemistry, Music and Dramatics. We have set up standards for textbooks, for supplementary material, including fiction to be read and songs to be sung. We have set up a program of procedure ranging from the teaching load and clock hours to library and laboratory equipment. We have sought to standardize the preparation of teachers, ranging from the number of years of college attendance to the subject matters studied. We have challenged the length of the course, the number of hours, and the title given in the catalog.

The recent experimental studies and other scientific data suggest that the standards that have been set up for size of class, either in high schools or in colleges, seem to be ill adapted to all classes. The latest University of Chicago plan proposes to limit the size of certain classes to the size of auditorium and the carrying power of the professor's voice.

In the last twenty years literally thousands of classrooms have been built in this territory in such a way as to make it well nigh impossible to take full advantage of the present implication of the scientific inquiry relative to the size of classes. The North Central standards have been dominant in the erection of practically all of the laboratories in the high

schools of this area. Last year Professor Downing, of the University of Chicago, succeeded in getting permission from this Association to prepare students for college with a sharp reduction in laboratory material. The Stephens College experiment has gone far enough to convince most of us of the fact that there is no special merit in the North Central standard of eight departments in an accredited college.

Doctor Capen told us last year that we had substituted engineering standards for educational standards and that we had become "more interested in the package than in the contents."

Despite the elaborate detail with which we have sought to enforce standards, with the various schemes of inspections and records and checks and counterchecks, warnings and dismissals, the actual product varies so widely as to give full point to Capen's illustration of the package and the contents. In recent years the University of Iowa has been holding state-wide academic examinations. Competitive examinations in fourteen high school subjects have been given in the various districts throughout the entire state. This so-called every pupil contest is participated in by nearly four hundred high schools enrolling more than 60,000 students. Analyses of the results by Doctor Lindquist show the variability in composite school averages in any one subject for all of the schools is as great as the variability of individual achievement in a typical school; that is, the difference in average achievement between the best and the poorest school in a subject such as English or mathematics or for all subjects combined, is as great as the difference between the best and the poorest student in the typical school. This variability is found even when the supposedly best schools alone are considered. Thus, many schools that have the same external standards of selection of teachers, teaching load, building and other conditions to meet the North Central Association list, rank actually lower than other schools which are not accredited. Indeed, an array of 92 North Central high schools and 283 non-accredited high schools distributed for average composite student scores revealed almost complete overlapping;

that is to say, 97 per cent of the non-accredited schools show average composite scores in the same range as 98 per cent of the North Central schools.

Fourteen per cent of the non-accredited schools had an average score which exceeded the average of all accredited schools. Again, each school in the upper one-third of the non-accredited list was superior to each school in the lower one-third of the accredited schools.

Further analyses of these data were especially interesting in view of the fact that in each subject an attempt was made to establish the relationship between certain verifiable facts, such as teaching experience, training, and teaching load, of the teacher, and the average test performance of her pupils. The facts given for American history are typical of those secured in each of the other thirteen subjects.

Student test averages of teachers of no experience, that is, teachers who in 1931 were teaching American History for the first time, were compared with those of teachers of seven or more years of experience. The surprising fact that came to the surface was that these two distributions overlapped almost completely. The range of averages for the upper 96 per cent of inexperienced teachers coincided with the range of averages for the lower 92 per cent of teachers with seven years or more of experience.

A comparison was made of teachers in American history who had majored in history and those who had neither majored nor minored in the subject in their college training. The distribution of test averages for the first of these groups almost exactly coincided with the distribution for the second group. The performance of students of teachers who had majored in American history was also compared with that of students of teachers who had had no college training in American history. It was found that the performance of the students in history of 34 teachers who had had no college work in this subject overlapped completely with that of students of teachers who had majored in American history. This does not mean that these teachers were ignorant of American history; it does mean that our current standards

make no provision for recognition of knowledge attained outside of the college classroom.

It will at once be asked whether or not there are any direct correlations between the performance of these students and the conditions under which they were taught. The best answer we can make is that competent students seem to come from schools of high morale and similar subjective conditions. Student performance in this competition suggests little relation to such external objective standards as are customarily employed by standardizing agencies.

Not only did the average performance of students vary widely in schools in the same general classification, but to our surprise, we found that the freshman physics work in the University was ill adapted to the sequential needs of the best high school students in physics. For example, seventy superior pupils in high school physics selected for superior test performance were given a carefully constructed objective examination which had been used for several years as a final examination in freshman physics at the State University of Iowa. Only two of these superior high school pupils failed to meet the minimum standard set for college students; a significant number exceeded the college "B" standard, despite the fact that we have felt heretofore we had a satisfactory relationship between the high school and the freshman course in the University.

We ourselves have hardly realized the powerful implications of the current standards. This past quarter of a century has been a period of expansion. Schools have been growing, wealth has been increasing, and since these standards for the most part sounded reasonable, they were seized upon and adopted for the purpose of improving school buildings, increasing the size of staff, multiplying equipment, improving the preferential opportunities for favored subjects in high schools and colleges, so that there was relatively little challenge. In the meantime, there has been a growing disposition on the part of the professional educationist to subject isolated standards to scientific inquiry, and it must be admitted that more than one of our standards that seemed to be satis-

factory from the standpoint of opinion have not been able to withstand scientific experiment. Size of classes and the use of laboratory material are cases in point. Now comes the statewide contest in Iowa which certainly casts doubt upon the effectiveness of the whole system as a basis for selecting the best high schools. The fundamental theory back of the organization and the development of the North Central Association as a standardizing agency was that by applying the yard stick of its standards, the best high schools could be selected. In Iowa it is a fact that, measured by test of students in fourteen subjects, the variation between these high schools is as great as or greater than high schools not on the list.

It is apparent on all sides that one of the outcomes of the present period of depression is the challenge of the excellence of the things we are doing. It is fortunate indeed that there are signs in this Association of lack of full confidence in current standards. It is most encouraging to note that certain institutions, notably Chicago, have had more or less continuous plans for betterment. Chicago is sufficiently powerful from the standpoint of wealth, prestige and personnel of staff to be able to undertake almost any kind of an experiment, but I believe we should seriously consider the fact that there is much evidence to indicate that we should not only *permit* but *encourage* all schools, secondary and collegiate, normal and junior college, large and small, to study their own problems with a view towards ascertaining the effect upon students of modified procedure irrespective of our so-called engineering standards.

Doctor Suzzallo has recently told us:

"Schooling should be the emphasis on learning rather than on teaching. Schooling will become more self-education under teacher stimulation and assistance. In fact, the teacher under the new regime will become a supervisor of learners. What a revolution would result from this changed attitude and point of view!"

Hail the day when this Association becomes so permeated with the spirit of doubt as to current procedure that it will

recognize more fully the educational knowledge which we now have of the conditions under which students learn, to the end that the next quarter of a century shall mark a period of widespread experimentation based on a growing knowledge of the outcome of educational procedure—so that the citizenry in this area may be given a program of education wherein students find a genuine challenge to learning that will continue from secondary and higher fields to adult education. The world is calling for improved education. Let the shackles of conventional and arbitrary standards be loosened in order to free the spirit of actual accomplishment on higher levels!

WALTER A. JESSUP,
The University of Iowa.

The 1931 Psychological Examination

THERE have been eight successive annual editions of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. Several different forms of psychological examinations have been tried out, and the most diagnostic have been retained to make up the present form of the examination. Another consideration in determining the number of tests has been the demand of the colleges for an examination which would not require so long a time to give as some examinations take. There are still frequent requests for a somewhat shorter test, but at present we do not feel that the examination can be shortened without decreasing its value. The examination consists of five separate tests, and the scores in the separate parts are so weighted that they can be combined into a gross score for the whole examination.

The number of schools that have ordered the 1931 edition is 377, and a total of 165,341 examinations have been sent out. (These figures are those of March first.)

This report contains norms on the scores of 41,369 students in 152 colleges. Tabulations have been made of all scores reported by March seventh. The list of colleges on whose scores the norms are based is given below. The number of records received from each and the median gross score for each are also given.

Following the list of colleges are frequency distributions and tables of norms for each of the five separate tests and for gross scores. Each table contains three frequency distributions and three sets of percentile ranks; one for the total number of cases reported, one for men, and one for women.

On the last table are shown the percentile ranks for corresponding gross scores in four successive editions.¹ The equivalence of these examinations is discussed later in the report.

¹ Equivalent scores for the 1926, 1927, and 1928 editions were given in THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD for April, 1929, (X, No. 2, pp. 105-115).

UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES SUBMITTING TEST RECORDS

	No. of students	Median gross score
University of Akron, Akron, Ohio.....	332	155.42
Alabama College, Montevallo, Ala.....	247	101.09
Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa.....	193	164.58
Arizona State Teachers College, Tempe, Ariz.....	310	113.75
University of Arizona, Tucson, Ariz.....	418	158.13
Baker University, Baldwin, Kans.....	96	135.00
Bates College, Lewiston, Me.....	211	176.25
Baylor University, Waco, Tex.....	284	125.38
Belhaven College, Jackson, Miss.....	55	121.25
Birmingham-Southern College, Birming- ham, Ala.....	296	121.30
Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.....	153	196.54
Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Ill..	265	138.33
Brenau College, Gainesville, Ga.....	186	126.00
Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah.	404	99.58
Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa.	283	165.48
University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.....	352	171.60
California Polytechnic School, San Luis Obispo, Cal.....	85	142.50
Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.....	283	160.25
Centenary College, Shreveport, La.....	222	107.33
Centre College, Danville, Ky.....	129	128.75
University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tenn.....	176	146.25
University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.....	687	202.21
Chico State Teachers College, Chico, Cal.	270	131.18
Clark University, Worcester, Mass.....	56	192.22
Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.....	248	125.38
Colby College, Waterville, Me.....	185	165.48
Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y.....	289	171.25
University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo....	806	145.38
Connecticut College, New London, Conn.	191	183.42
Junior College of Connecticut, Bridgeport, Conn.....	73	164.17
Converse College, Spartanburg, S. C.....	78	141.43
Creston Junior College, Creston, Iowa....	53	118.33
Culver-Stockton College, Canton, Mo....	92	126.67
Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.....	688	206.67
University of Delaware, Newark, Del....	247	154.64
DePauw University, Greencastle, Ind....	546	164.67

	No. of students	Median gross score
Summer School of Duke University, Durham, N. C.	787	150.52
Earlham College, Richmond, Ind.	166	129.00
Emory University, Emory University, Ga.	188	143.33
College of Emporia, Emporia, Kans.	95	126.25
Eureka College, Eureka, Ill.	78	141.25
Evansville College, Evansville, Ind.	157	133.18
Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, Fla.	601	131.92
University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla.	785	134.91
Fresno State Teachers College, Fresno, Cal.	596	127.07
Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville, Ga.	148	121.82
Georgian Court College, Lakewood, N. J.	42	137.50
Gettysburg College, Gettysburg, Pa.	187	133.57
Goshen College, Goshen, Ind.	45	168.33
Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.	225	199.00
Graceland College, Lamoni, Iowa	90	132.22
Hanover College, Hanover, Ind.	152	116.00
Haverford College, Haverford, Pa.	83	241.67
Highland Park Junior College, Highland Park, Mich.	122	146.67
Hobart and William Smith Colleges, Geneva, N. Y.	129	177.50
Howard University, Washington, D. C.	158	102.00
Huron College, Huron, S. D.	84	135.00
Illinois College, Jacksonville, Ill.	113	152.50
University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.	2168	146.39
Immaculata College, Immaculata, Pa.	90	169.00
Iowa Wesleyan College, Mt. Pleasant, Ia.	100	109.00
Jamestown, College, Jamestown, N. D.	103	162.08
Jefferson University, Dallas, Tex.	13	127.50
Juniata College, Huntingdon, Pa.	167	122.27
Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Mich.	109	164.50
Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kans.	376	100.61
Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio	83	195.00
Loretto Heights College, Loretto Heights, Colo.	27	155.00
University of Louisville, Louisville, Ky., Second Semester	319	133.61
Lyons Township Junior College, La Grange, Ill.	66	145.00
	136	168.00

	No. of students	Median gross score
Marion Military Institute, Marion, Ala...	62	159.00
Marshall College, Huntington, W. Va....	596	110.44
Maryland State Normal School, Frost- burg, Md.....	43	93.13
Maryland State Normal School, Towson, Md.....	362	134.05
University of Maryland, College Park, Md.	497	147.42
Maryville College, Maryville, Tenn.....	290	132.27
Marywood College, Scranton, Pa.....	91	131.88
Massachusetts State College, Amherst, Mass.....	304	190.40
Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.....	647	128.27
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.	1296	171.72
Missionary Baptist College, Sheridan, Ark.	22	79.00
Mississippi Delta State Teachers College, Cleveland, Miss.....	124	115.71
University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo....	813	130.07
Missouri Valley College, Marshall, Mo....	99	129.29
Montana State College, Bozeman, Mont..	310	142.61
State University of Montana, Missoula, Mont.....	480	135.00
J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Ill.	360	149.60
Mount St. Charles College, Helena, Mont.	46	142.50
Mount St. Joseph College, Chestnut Hill, Pa.....	78	159.00
College of Mount St. Vincent, New York, N. Y.....	121	173.13
Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pa.....	149	162.50
University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb....	330	143.33
University of Nevada, Reno, Nev.....	230	133.85
University of New Hampshire, Durham, N. H.....	483	151.91
University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, N. M.....	291	120.28
Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill..	945	189.59
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.....	735	128.98
Oakwood School, Poughkeepsie, N. Y....	21	172.50
Oregon State Agricultural College, Cor- vallis, Ore.....	1025	143.15
Universty of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.....	701	143.43
Pacific University, Forest Grove, Ore.....	109	133.57

	<i>No. of students</i>	<i>Median gross score</i>
Park College, Parkville, Mo.....	183	145.00
Parsons College, Fairfield, Iowa.....	89	170.83
Phillips University, Enid, Okla.....	121	126.82
Pomona College, Claremont, Calif.....	185	193.00
College of Puget Sound, Tacoma, Wash.....	245	134.60
Reed College, Portland, Ore.....	162	195.33
Rollins College, Winter Park, Fla.....	160	169.00
Rosemont College, Rosemont, Pa.....	55	155.83
College of St. Elizabeth, Convent Station, N. J.....	110	160.83
St. Mary College, Leavenworth, Kans.....	42	139.00
St. Mary's College, Notre Dame, Ind.....	107	150.71
St. Mary's University, San Antonio, Tex.....	74	125.00
St. Mary-of-the-Woods College, St. Mary- of-the-Woods, Ind.....	99	146.50
St. Vincent College, Latrobe, Pa.....	62	131.43
St. Xavier College, Chicago, Ill.....	51	178.75
Santa Barbara State Teachers College, Santa Barbara, Cal.....	217	132.92
Seton Hill College, Greensburg, Pa.....	49	155.00
Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa.....	186	112.35
Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Tex.....	441	152.88
Southwestern College, Winfield, Kans.....	152	132.14
State Agricultural and Mechanical Col- lege, Jonesboro, Ark.....	132	115.71
Sweet Briar College, Sweet Briar, Va.....	220	186.54
Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.....	1308	161.79
Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.....	858	154.35
Texas State College for Women, Denton, Tex.....	442	122.57
Thiel College, Greenville, Pa.....	87	146.43
Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.....	134	186.43
Trinity College, Washington, D. C.....	91	190.56
University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Okla.....	220	138.24
Tusculum College, Greeneville, Tenn.....	115	103.50
Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, Ind.....	197	143.18
Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.....	216	164.17
University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.....	363	148.28
Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacks- burg, Va.....	425	119.11
Washburn College, Topeka, Kans.....	226	141.67
Washington College, Chestertown, Md.....	94	134.00

	<i>No. of students</i>	<i>Median gross score</i>
State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash.....	1009	131.29
Washington and Jefferson College, Wash- ington, Pa.....	122	139.00
Washington and Lee University, Lexing- ton, Va.....	262	154.74
Webster College, Webster Groves, Mo.....	46	159.00
Wells College, Aurora, N. Y.....	79	213.89
West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.....	304	126.67
Western Maryland College, Westminster, Md.....	159	132.50
Westminster College, New Wilmington, Pa.....	226	143.81
Wheaton College, Wheaton, Ill.....	213	166.94
Willamette University, Salem, Ore.....	194	145.00
William Woods College, Fulton, Mo.....	213	134.69
Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pa.....	149	192.19
Winona State Teachers College, Winona, Minn.....	240	123.33
Yankton College, Yankton, S. D.....	111	123.57
Central Y.M.C.A. College, Chicago, Ill...	307	146.05

Completion Test

Norms based on the scores of 33,138 students in 129 colleges. 18,330 men; 13,757 women.

Score equals two times the number of right answers.

Perfect score equals 80.

<i>Score</i>	<i>Men</i>		<i>Women</i>		<i>Total¹</i>	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentile</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentile</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentile</i>
0	35	.001	22	.001	61	.001
2	60	.004	64	.004	133	.004
4	119	.008	126	.010	263	.010
6	215	.018	207	.022	452	.020
8	347	.032	307	.042	689	.038
10	415	.054	363	.066	826	.060
12	581	.081	503	.098	1137	.090
14	621	.114	582	.137	1257	.126
16	724	.150	646	.182	1414	.166
18	881	.194	717	.231	1663	.213
20	950	.244	727	.284	1737	.264
22	975	.296	823	.340	1848	.318
24	1020	.351	791	.398	1872	.374
26	1072	.408	763	.455	1884	.432
28	1097	.467	798	.512	1950	.490
30	993	.524	779	.569	1814	.546
32	1022	.579	780	.626	1848	.601
34	935	.632	726	.680	1699	.654
36	898	.682	661	.731	1605	.704
38	814	.729	579	.776	1438	.750
40	739	.772	506	.816	1276	.792
42	700	.811	433	.850	1169	.828
44	578	.846	384	.879	991	.861
46	493	.874	333	.905	844	.888
48	443	.900	301	.928	763	.912
50	366	.923	226	.948	604	.933
52	306	.941	159	.962	480	.950
54	244	.956	137	.972	386	.963
56	207	.968	99	.980	320	.974
58	144	.978	77	.987	229	.982
60	113	.985	49	.992	168	.988
62	81	.990	38	.995	121	.992
64	49	.994	16	.996	68	.995
66	37	.996	15	.998	52	.997
68	23	.998	7	.998	31	.998
70	18	.998	3	.999	21	.999

¹ The total includes the scores of 1,051 students not classified according to sex.

72	11	.999	3	.999	14	.999
74	4	.999	4	.999	8	.999
76			3	.999	3	.999
Lower Quartile	20.23		18.72		19.45	
Median	29.16		27.58		28.36	
Upper Quartile	38.98		36.84		38.00	

Artificial Language Test

Norms based on the scores of 33,198 students in 129 colleges. 18,366 men; 13,778 women.

Score equals the number of words correctly translated.

Perfect score equals 73.

Score	Men		Women		Total ¹	
	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile
0- 2	191	.005	71	.002	273	.004
3- 5	165	.014	75	.008	247	.012
6- 8	375	.030	106	.014	499	.024
9-11	550	.055	120	.022	707	.042
12-14	1054	.098	274	.037	1374	.072
15-17	1371	.164	422	.062	1865	.122
18-20	1527	.244	565	.098	2166	.182
21-23	2049	.340	995	.155	3146	.262
24-26	1866	.447	1092	.230	3047	.356
27-29	1596	.542	986	.306	2679	.442
30-32	1244	.619	910	.375	2235	.516
33-35	1066	.682	879	.440	2010	.580
36-38	909	.736	787	.500	1762	.636
39-41	840	.783	854	.559	1741	.689
42-44	744	.826	777	.618	1566	.739
45-47	524	.860	707	.672	1280	.782
48-50	567	.890	845	.729	1441	.823
51-53	471	.919	827	.790	1331	.865
54-56	464	.944	825	.850	1313	.904
57-59	256	.964	434	.895	705	.934
60-62	159	.975	283	.921	453	.952
63-65	102	.982	252	.940	367	.964
66-68	99	.988	206	.958	313	.975
69-71	104	.993	264	.974	381	.986
72-73	73	.998	222	.992	297	.996
Lower Quartile	19.73		26.24		22.10	
Median	27.07		37.53		30.81	
Upper Quartile	38.39		50.52		44.19	

¹ The total includes the scores of 1,054 students not classified according to sex.

Analogies Test

Norms based on the scores of 33,121 students in 129 colleges. 18,320 men; 13,750 women.

Score equals two times the number of right answers.

Perfect score equals 56.

Score	Men		Women		Total ¹	
	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile
0	213	.006	101	.004	331	.050
2	192	.017	101	.011	305	.014
4	261	.029	210	.022	493	.026
6	407	.048	308	.041	747	.046
8	528	.073	392	.066	956	.072
10	640	.104	448	.097	1124	.102
12	633	.140	520	.132	1210	.138
14	628	.174	522	.170	1191	.174
16	649	.209	484	.206	1184	.210
18	630	.244	518	.243	1205	.246
20	690	.280	544	.282	1281	.284
22	758	.320	571	.322	1393	.324
24	833	.362	628	.366	1500	.368
26	880	.410	702	.414	1637	.415
28	1015	.462	824	.470	1890	.468
30	1097	.519	829	.530	1986	.527
32	1120	.580	844	.591	2023	.588
34	1135	.641	919	.655	2106	.650
36	1139	.703	826	.718	2023	.712
38	1058	.763	858	.780	1967	.772
40	931	.818	726	.838	1706	.828
42	849	.866	630	.886	1515	.876
44	676	.908	456	.926	1162	.916
46	513	.940	337	.955	866	.947
48	397	.965	236	.976	646	.970
50	247	.982	112	.988	362	.986
52	136	.992	74	.995	215	.994
54	55	.998	25	.999	82	.998
56	10	.999	5	.999	15	.999
Lower Quartile	18.33		18.36		18.21	
Median	29.33		29.00		29.08	
Upper Quartile	37.57		37.03		37.27	

¹ The total includes the scores of 1,051 students not classified according to sex.

Arithmetic Test

Norms based on the scores of 33,063 students in 129 colleges 18,288 men; 13,720 women.

Score equals four times the number of right answers.

Perfect score equals 80.

Score	Men		Women		Total ¹	
	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile
0	188	.050	563	.020	770	.012
4	596	.026	1321	.089	1977	.053
8	1112	.074	1883	.206	3089	.130
12	1658	.149	2054	.350	3854	.234
16	1885	.246	1883	.493	3928	.352
20	2080	.354	1730	.625	3956	.472
24	2065	.468	1317	.736	3484	.584
28	1843	.574	963	.819	2895	.680
32	1578	.668	668	.878	2309	.759
36	1313	.747	474	.920	1834	.822
40	1054	.812	320	.948	1414	.872
44	853	.864	209	.968	1092	.910
48	623	.904	135	.980	787	.938
52	468	.934	104	.989	587	.958
56	339	.956	48	.994	390	.973
60	256	.972	22	.997	285	.984
64	164	.984	12	.998	183	.990
68	106	.991	6	.999	112	.994
72	65	.996	4	.999	70	.998
76	33	.999	4	.999	37	.999
80	9	.999			10	.999
Lower Quartile	16.15		9.22		12.54	
Median	25.21		16.21		21.00	
Upper Quartile	36.18		24.67		31.54	

¹ The total includes the scores of 1,055 students not classified according to sex.

Opposites Test

Norms based on the scores of 32,905 students in 129 colleges. 18,206 men; 13,646 women.

Score equals three times the number of right answers.

Perfect score equals 81.

Score	Men		Women		Total ¹	
	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile
0	613	.017	260	.010	898	.014
3	401	.045	246	.028	676	.038
6	651	.074	359	.050	1044	.064
9	773	.112	486	.081	1313	.100
12	843	.157	632	.122	1534	.142
15	879	.204	684	.170	1624	.190
18	877	.252	680	.220	1622	.240
21	896	.302	697	.270	1659	.290
24	908	.351	707	.322	1674	.340
27	821	.398	689	.374	1555	.390
30	961	.448	686	.424	1701	.439
33	864	.498	708	.475	1628	.490
36	885	.546	676	.526	1609	.538
39	905	.594	675	.575	1632	.588
42	917	.644	595	.622	1559	.636
45	861	.694	599	.665	1500	.683
48	803	.739	589	.708	1444	.728
51	756	.782	569	.751	1351	.770
54	669	.821	559	.792	1251	.810
57	604	.856	476	.830	1109	.846
60	566	.888	440	.864	1043	.878
63	501	.918	448	.896	978	.909
66	424	.942	373	.926	816	.936
69	350	.964	334	.952	699	.960
72	258	.981	246	.974	518	.978
75	129	.992	150	.988	287	.990
78	75	.997	65	.996	147	.996
81	16	.999	18	.999	34	.999
Lower Quartile	17.88		19.80		18.60	
Median	33.12		34.47		33.62	
Upper Quartile	48.77		50.93		49.57	

¹ The total includes the scores of 1,053 students not classified according to sex.

Gross Score

Norms based on the scores of 41,369 students in 152 colleges. 18,370 men; 13,784 women.

Perfect score equals 370.

Score	Men		Women		Total ¹	
	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile	Frequency	Percentile
0- 9	4	.000	1	.000	6	.000
10- 19	9	.000	11	.000	26	.000
20- 29	56	.002	33	.002	108	.002
30- 39	125	.007	77	.006	252	.006
40- 49	241	.017	149	.014	473	.015
50- 59	426	.035	276	.030	852	.031
60- 69	581	.063	412	.055	1213	.056
70- 79	749	.099	589	.091	1686	.091
80- 89	849	.142	615	.135	1823	.134
90- 99	982	.192	724	.183	2115	.181
100-109	1117	.249	840	.240	2429	.236
110-119	1100	.310	847	.301	2458	.295
120-129	1170	.371	894	.364	2648	.357
130-139	1207	.436	903	.429	2664	.421
140-149	1109	.499	916	.495	2623	.485
150-159	1104	.559	857	.560	2590	.548
160-169	1120	.620	901	.624	2557	.610
170-179	1001	.678	740	.683	2285	.669
180-189	975	.732	781	.738	2278	.724
190-199	874	.782	637	.790	1992	.776
200-209	772	.827	588	.834	1779	.821
210-219	640	.865	507	.874	1561	.861
220-229	516	.897	451	.909	1293	.896
230-239	440	.923	324	.937	1019	.924
240-249	348	.944	229	.957	799	.946
250-259	280	.961	168	.971	598	.963
260-269	190	.974	121	.982	436	.975
270-279	138	.983	85	.989	301	.984
280-289	114	.990	58	.994	234	.991
290-299	70	.995	25	.997	137	.995
300-309	26	.997	15	.999	63	.998
310-319	27	.999	5	.999	45	.999
320-329	7	.999	4	.999	19	.999
330-339	2	.999	0	.999	3	.999
340-349	1	.999	1	.999	3	.999
350-359					1	.999
Lower Quartile	105.12		106.66		107.36	
Median	145.13		145.68		147.37	
Upper Quartile	188.49		187.08		189.75	

¹ The total includes the scores of 9,215 students not classified according to sex.

*Equivalence of Scores in the 1928, 1929, 1930, and
1931 Editions*

Percentile Rank

<i>Scores</i>	<i>1928</i>	<i>1929</i>	<i>1930</i>	<i>1931</i>
0-10	.000	.000	.000	.000
10-	.001	.001	.001	.000
20-	.005	.003	.005	.002
30-	.014	.007	.013	.006
40-	.030	.017	.028	.015
50-	.054	.033	.052	.031
60-	.086	.057	.084	.056
70-	.126	.093	.124	.091
80-	.174	.139	.174	.134
90-	.228	.194	.228	.181
100-	.287	.255	.287	.236
110-	.349	.322	.349	.295
120-	.413	.392	.413	.357
130-	.479	.461	.477	.421
140-	.544	.529	.541	.485
150-	.608	.596	.604	.548
160-	.669	.661	.665	.610
170-	.726	.721	.721	.669
180-	.778	.774	.772	.724
190-	.824	.822	.818	.776
200-	.864	.863	.858	.821
210-	.897	.897	.892	.861
220-	.926	.925	.919	.896
230-	.947	.948	.942	.924
240-	.964	.965	.960	.946
250-	.977	.977	.973	.963
260-	.986	.986	.983	.975
270-	.992	.992	.990	.984
280-	.995	.995	.994	.991
290-	.997	.998	.997	.995
300-	.998	.999	.998	.998
310-	.999	.999	.999	.999
320-	.999	.999	.999	.999

Comparison of Men and Women

Inspection of the table of norms for the gross score and the medians and quartiles for the separate distributions for men and women shows that there is no significant difference between the scores of men and of women. A closer study of the norms for men and for women on the separate tests, however, shows that there are significant differences in some of the separate tests. On the Completion Test, the women make slightly higher scores than the men. On the Artificial Language Test, the women do considerably better, with a median score 10.5 higher than the men. On the Analogies Test there is no difference between the performances of the two groups. On the Arithmetic Test, the men do conspicuously better than the women, the difference in median scores being nine points. On the Opposites Test again the difference is very slightly in favor of the women. These differences between the two groups are interesting in the consistency of better scores of women on linguistic tests, and better performance by men on the more quantitative tests.

Equivalence of Successive Editions

The last table above shows that the gross scores in the 1928, 1929, and 1930 editions are directly comparable, but that the 1931 edition was somewhat easier than the previous three. This is shown clearly by the quartile points for the four years, which are summarized below.

	1928	1929	1930	1931
Lower Quartile.....	99	104	99	107
Median.....	138	141	139	147
Upper Quartile.....	179	180	181	190

It is likely that many of the colleges are raising their entrance requirements and gradually getting a better qualified group of students. This factor would raise the scores of freshmen in the psychological examination even if the difficulty of the test were the same.

A further check has been made by comparing the median scores for the 1930 and 1931 examinations of ninety-four colleges that submitted records both years. Five colleges had

the same median gross score for the two years, nineteen had higher scores on the 1930 examination, and seventy had higher scores on the 1931 edition. These facts indicate that the 1931 edition is somewhat easier than the 1930 edition.

This difference in difficulty was not at all expected. The tests, with the exception of the Analogies Test had been carefully equated in difficulty. A comparison of the medians in the separate tests for the 1930 and 1931 editions shows that no single test is responsible for the difference in gross scores for the two years.

	<i>1930</i>	<i>1931</i>
	<i>Median</i>	<i>Median</i>
Completion.....	30.00	28.36
Artificial Language.....	24.73	30.81
Analogies.....	23.51	29.08
Arithmetic.....	24.87	21.00
Opposites.....	33.52	33.62
Gross Scores.....	138.59	147.37

Changes in the 1932 Edition

The 1932 edition will be somewhat different from previous editions, but it is hoped that gross scores will be directly comparable to those of previous years. The changes to be made are only minor changes in the form of the tests to facilitate scoring. The same five tests will be used, and extensive standardizations of separate test questions for each test have been made or will be completed in time to construct tests comparable in difficulty to tests of previous years.

Reliability and Validity

Previous studies of reliability and validity have shown the reliability of the gross scores to be about .95 and the correlation between test scores and scholarship have averaged around .50 for a large number of colleges. The schools using the tests are making many studies of the value of them.

The Wisconsin Study

A recent bulletin of the University of Wisconsin prepared by V. A. C. Henmon and F. O. Holt is one of the best exam-

ples of the use being made of the Psychological Examination. Those interested in the validity of the tests and in the problem of selecting college students will find this report very interesting and valuable. The title of the bulletin is "A Report on the Administration of Scholastic Aptitude Tests to 34,000 High School Seniors in Wisconsin in 1929 and 1930."

L. L. THURSTONE,

THELMA GWINN THURSTONE,

The University of Chicago.

American Universities and Colleges

IN 1928 Dr. David Allan Robertson prepared and published for the American Council a handbook of American Universities and Colleges. An edition of six thousand copies was printed and the book was out of print and unobtainable by the end of 1930. The Council made inquiry through its Executive Committee and found that it was the general consensus of opinion that the book was of great value to educational executives and supplied information not available in authoritative form in any other book of reference. Although the plates of the first edition were still in existence the Council determined that the value of such a book of reference was largely dependent on the recency of its statistics and that if a new edition was to be published the book should be completely revised and brought up-to-date. The Council secured a subvention from the General Education Board which made it financially possible to enter into an arrangement with the Williams and Wilkins Company of Baltimore for the publication of the book at \$4. The book was completed and placed on sale February 29, 1932.

The plan of the first edition has been adhered to with considerable modification in Chapter V dealing with professional schools and in Chapter VI, dealing with graduate courses in the arts and sciences. The number of institutions accredited by the regional associations having been increased since 1928 by 126 institutions, the total number of statements of separate institutions in Part II is increased to 521. Forestry and Veterinary Medicine are added to the list of professions included in Chapter V, and the section on Theology is greatly enlarged.

Important new indexes have been added giving alpha-

betical lists of 2,602 full professors giving graduate instruction in the 29 universities which are members of the Association of American Universities, and of the names of 3,085 administrative officers named by the 521 institutions in their separate exhibits. An alphabetical index of learned journals and publications issued at institutions lists 416 titles. An index has been added of the institutions arranged by geographical location and also an index of institutions by church relationship.

Of the 521 institutions included in the volume 157 are tax supported institutions, 258 report themselves as affiliated with some church, and 106 are privately supported and controlled. The list of kinds of degrees conferred by American institutions is given in Appendix XVII and numbers 170.

A chapter in the Appendix is devoted to a full description of the organization and work of the Library of Congress, prepared by the Library, and another chapter describes the work of the Brookings Institution of Washington, as these institutions are unique in the American system. A brief summary of the work of the United States Office of Education, prepared by the Office, is included in Chapter I. The appendix includes the approved lists of the Association of American Universities, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, the New England Association of Colleges and Universities, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, together with a statement of the standards of the Catholic Educational Association, the Association of Colleges for Negro Youth, and the American Association of Junior Colleges. A further list gives the names of institutions which are members of the American Council on Education. The list of approved Teachers Colleges is given in Chapter V. Other appendices give a list of fellowships and scholarships for foreign students and the statistics of foreign students in attendance in schools, colleges and universities in the United States.

Approved lists of medical schools, and hospitals for internes and graduate students, are given in Chapter V, while the opportunities for graduate study in the medical sciences leading to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Science are given in Chapter VI. Statistics regarding law schools and requirements for admission to the bar in the various states, prepared by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, are given in Chapter V by permission of the Foundation. The statistics regarding doctors' degrees in the sciences conferred during the last ten years in the United States, prepared by the National Research Council, are given in Chapter VI.

President Robertson's admirable description of the American College, its organization and life, is reprinted as Chapter II, as is also his chapter on the American University and his chapter on the Foreign Student in the United States.

The seal of the American Council appears for the first time on the title page, the Council having been formally incorporated in May, 1931, after thirteen years' operation as a voluntary association. The entire volume makes a book of 1,080 pages of royal octavo size.

Orders for the book should be addressed to the Williams and Wilkins Company, Baltimore, Maryland, or to local booksellers.

The Council acknowledges with gratitude the ungrudging coöperation of the Universities, Colleges, Foundations and Associations, without whose help the prompt assembling of the material would have been impossible.

JOHN H. MACCRACKEN.

Accredited Higher Institutions

In 1924 the American Council on Education approved and published two reports of its Committee on Standards, recommending uniform standards as criteria for accrediting colleges, teacher-training institutions and junior colleges. Since then the various regional associations have worked continuously on this problem, have revised their respective lists each year and are gradually working toward uniform standards.

The following list is merely a compilation as of April 1, 1932, of the lists of the established accrediting agencies; namely, the Association of American Universities, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools.

In the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the standards set up for institutional membership are equivalent to those required for accrediting by the other regional associations. Therefore the institutional members of the New England Association are also included in this list.

It will be noted that the five regional associations of colleges and secondary schools just mentioned cover among them the entire United States with the exception of the far southwest. Hence institutions in that region would not appear in the following list unless they appear on the list of the Association of American Universities, which is a national list.

The American Council on Education has printed as a separate pamphlet its recommendations concerning standards for accrediting higher institutions. Copies of this pamphlet and of the accompanying list will be sent without charge on request, addressed to the office of the Council.

ALABAMA

Alabama College, Montevallo
Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn
Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham
Howard College, Birmingham
Judson College, Marion
Spring Hill College, Spring Hill
Talladega College, Talladega
University of Alabama, University
Woman's College of Alabama, Montgomery

ARIZONA

Arizona State Teachers College, Flagstaff
Arizona State Teachers College, Tempe
University of Arizona, Tucson

ARKANSAS

Arkansas State Teachers College, Conway
College of the Ozarks, Clarksville
Hendrix College, Conway
University of Arkansas, Fayetteville

CALIFORNIA

California Institute of Technology, Pasadena
Claremont Colleges (Pomona; Scripps)
Claremont
College of the Holy Names, Oakland
College of the Pacific, Stockton
Dominican College of San Rafael, San Rafael
Immaculate Heart College, Hollywood
Mills College, Oakland

Occidental College, Los Angeles
 St. Mary's College, St. Mary's
 Stanford University, Stanford University
 University of California, Berkeley
 University of California, Los Angeles
 University of Redlands, Redlands
 University of Southern California, Los Angeles
 Whittier College, Whittier

COLORADO

Colorado Agricultural College, Fort Collins
 Colorado College, Colorado Springs
 Colorado School of Mines, Golden
 Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley
 Loretto Heights College, Denver
 University of Colorado, Boulder
 University of Denver, Denver
 Western State Teachers College, Gunnison

CONNECTICUT

Albertus Magnus College, New Haven
 Connecticut Agricultural College, Storrs
 Connecticut College for Women, New London
 Trinity College, Hartford
 Wesleyan University, Middletown
 Yale University, New Haven

DELAWARE

University of Delaware, Newark

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

American University, Washington, D. C.
 Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.
 George Washington University, Washington, D. C.
 Georgetown University, Washington, D. C.
 Howard University, Washington, D. C.
 Trinity College, Washington, D. C.

FLORIDA

Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee
 Rollins College, Winter Park
 University of Florida, Gainesville

GEORGIA

Agnes Scott College, Decatur
 Brenau College, Gainesville
 Emory University, Atlanta
 Georgia School of Technology, Atlanta
 Georgia State College for Women, Millidgeville
 Georgia State Teachers College, Athens
 Georgia State Woman's College, Valdosta
 Mercer University, Macon
 Shorter College for Women, Rome
 University of Georgia, Athens
 Wesleyan College, Macon

HAWAII

University of Hawaii, Honolulu
IDAHO
 College of Idaho, Caldwell
 University of Idaho, Moscow

ILLINOIS

Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago
 Augustana College and Theological Seminary, Rock Island
 Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria
 Carthage College, Carthage
 De Paul University, Chicago
 Eureka College, Eureka
 Illinois College, Jacksonville
 Illinois State Normal University, Normal
 Illinois State Normal University (Southern), Carbondale
 Illinois State Teachers College (Eastern), Charleston
 Illinois State Teachers College (Northern), De Kalb
 Illinois State Teachers College (Western), Macomb
 Illinois Wesleyan University, Bloomington
 James Millikin University, Decatur
 Knox College, Galesburg
 Lake Forest College, Lake Forest
 Lewis Institute, Chicago
 Loyola University, Chicago
 MacMurray College for Women, Jacksonville
 McKendree College, Lebanon
 Monmouth College, Monmouth
 North Central College, Naperville
 Northwestern University, Evanston
 Rockford College, Rockford
 Rosary College, River Forest
 Shurtleff College, Alton
 University of Chicago, Chicago
 University of Illinois, Urbana
 Wheaton College, Wheaton

INDIANA

Ball State Teachers College, Muncie
 Butler University, Indianapolis
 De Pauw University, Greencastle
 Earlham College, Richmond
 Evansville College, Evansville
 Franklin College of Indiana, Franklin
 Hanover College, Hanover
 Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute
 Indiana University, Bloomington
 Manchester College, North Manchester
 Purdue University, Lafayette
 Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terra Haute
 St. Mary's College, Notre Dame

St. Mary of the Woods College, St. Mary of the Woods
 University of Notre Dame du Lac, Notre Dame
 Valparaiso University, Valparaiso
 Wabash College, Crawfordsville

IOWA

Clarke College, Dubuque
 Coe College, Cedar Rapids
 Columbia College of Dubuque, Dubuque
 Cornell College, Mt. Vernon
 Drake University, Des Moines
 Grinnell College, Grinnell
 Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames
 Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls
 Luther College, Decorah
 Morningside College, Sioux City
 Parsons College, Fairfield
 St. Ambrose College, Davenport
 Simpson College, Indianola
 University of Dubuque, Dubuque
 University of Iowa, Iowa City

KANSAS

Baker University, Baldwin
 Bethany College, Lindsborg
 College of Emporia, Emporia
 Fort Hays Kansas State College, Hays
 Friends University, Wichita
 Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science, Manhattan
 Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Emporia
 Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburgh
 Marymount College, Salina
 Municipal University of Wichita, Wichita
 Ottawa University, Ottawa
 Southwestern College, Winfield
 St. Benedict's College, Atchison
 Sterling College, Sterling
 University of Kansas, Lawrence
 Washburn College, Topeka

KENTUCKY

Berea College, Berea
 Centre College of Kentucky, Danville
 Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, Richmond
 Georgetown College, Georgetown
 Morehead State Teachers College, Morehead
 Murray State Teachers College, Murray
 Transylvania College, Lexington
 University of Kentucky, Lexington
 University of Louisville, Louisville
 Western Kentucky State Teachers College, Bowling Green

LOUISIANA

Centenary College of Louisiana, Shreveport
 Louisiana College, Pineville
 Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston
 Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge
 Loyola University, New Orleans
 Newcomb College, New Orleans
 Southwestern Louisiana Institute, Lafayette
 State Normal College, Natchitoches
 Tulane University of Louisiana, New Orleans

MAINE

Bates College, Lewiston
 Bowdoin College, Brunswick
 Colby College, Waterville
 University of Maine, Orono

MARYLAND

College of Notre Dame of Maryland, Baltimore
 Goucher College, Baltimore
 Hood College, Frederick
 Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore
 Loyola College, Baltimore
 Morgan College, Baltimore
 Mt. St. Mary's College, Emmitsburg
 St. John's College, Annapolis
 St. Joseph's College, Emmitsburg
 United States Naval Academy, Annapolis
 University of Maryland, College Park
 Washington College, Chestertown
 Western Maryland College, Westminster

MASSACHUSETTS

Amherst College, Amherst
 Boston College, Chestnut Hill
 Boston University, Boston
 Clark University, Worcester
 College of the Holy Cross, Worcester
 Harvard University, Cambridge
 International Y. M. C. A. College, Springfield
 Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge
 Massachusetts State College, Amherst
 Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley
 Radcliffe College, Cambridge
 Simmons College, Boston
 Smith College, Northampton
 Tufts College, Medford
 Wellesley College, Wellesley
 Wheaton College, Norton
 Williams College, Williamstown
 Worcester Polytechnic Institute, Worcester

MICHIGAN

Albion College, Albion
 Alma College, Alma

- Battle Creek College, Battle Creek
 Calvin College, Grand Rapids
 Colleges of the City of Detroit, Detroit
 Hillsdale College of Michigan, Hillsdale
 Hope College, Holland
 Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo
 Marygrove College, Detroit
 Michigan College of Mining and Technology, Houghton
 Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Science, East Lansing
 Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti
 Michigan State Teachers College, (Central), Mount Pleasant
 Michigan State Teachers College (Western), Kalamazoo
 Michigan State Teachers College (Northern), Marquette
 University of Detroit, Detroit
 University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
- MINNESOTA**
 Carleton College, Northfield
 College of St. Catherine, St. Paul
 College of St. Scholastica, Duluth
 College of St. Teresa, Winona
 College of St. Thomas, St. Paul
 Concordia College, Moorhead
 Gustavus Adolphus College, St. Peter
 Hamline University, St. Paul
 Macalester College, St. Paul
 St. Olaf College, Northfield
 University of Minnesota, Minneapolis
- MISSISSIPPI**
 Blue Mountain College, Blue Mountain
 Delta State Teachers College, Cleveland
 Millsaps College, Jackson
 Mississippi College, Clinton
 Mississippi Woman's College, Hattiesburg
- MISSOURI**
 Central College, Fayette
 Culver-Stockton College, Canton
 Drury College, Springfield
 Lindenwood College, St. Charles
 Missouri State Teachers College (Central), Warrensburg
 Missouri State Teachers College (Northeast), Kirksville
 Missouri State Teachers College (Northwest), Maryville
 Missouri State Teachers College (Southeast), Cape Girardeau
 Missouri State Teachers College (Southwest), Springfield
 Missouri Valley College, Marshall
 Park College, Parkville
 St. Louis University, St. Louis
 Tarkio College, Tarkio
- University of Missouri, Columbia
 Washington University, St. Louis
 Webster College for Women, Webster Groves
 Westminster College, Fulton
 William Jewell College, Liberty
- MONTANA**
 Montana State College, Bozeman
 Mt. St. Charles College, Helena
 State University of Montana, Missoula
- NEBRASKA**
 Creighton University, Omaha
 Doane College, Crete
 Hastings College, Hastings
 Nebraska Wesleyan University, Lincoln
 University of Nebraska, Lincoln
- NEVADA**
 University of Nevada, Reno
- NEW HAMPSHIRE**
 Dartmouth College, Hanover
 University of New Hampshire, Durham
- NEW JERSEY**
 College of St. Elizabeth, Convent Station
 Georgian Court College, Lakewood
 New Jersey College for Women, New Brunswick
 Princeton University, Princeton
 Rutgers University, New Brunswick
 Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken
- NEW MEXICO**
 New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, State College
 New Mexico State Teachers College, Silver City
 University of New Mexico, Albuquerque
- NEW YORK**
 Adelphi College, Garden City
 Alfred University, Alfred
 Barnard College, New York City
 Canisius College of Buffalo, Buffalo
 City College, New York City
 Clarkson School of Technology, Potsdam
 Colgate University, Hamilton
 College of Mt. St. Vincent, Mt. St. Vincent-on-Hudson
 College of New Rochelle, New Rochelle
 College of the Sacred Heart, New York City
 College of St. Rose, Albany
 Columbia University, New York City
 Cornell University, Ithaca
 D'Youville College, Buffalo
 Elmira College, Elmira
 Fordham University, Fordham
 Good Counsel College, White Plains
 Hamilton College, Clinton

Hobart College, Geneva	OHIO
Hunter College of the City of New York, New York City	Antioch College, Yellow Springs
Keuka College, Keuka Park	Ashland College, Ashland
Manhattan College, New York City	Baldwin Wallace College, Berea
Marymount College, Tarrytown-on-Hudson	Bowling Green State College, Bowling Green
Nazareth College, Rochester	Capital University, Columbus
New York State College for Teachers, Albany	Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland
New York University, New York City	College of Mt. St. Joseph on the Ohio,
Niagara University, Niagara	Mt. St. Joseph
Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, Brooklyn	College of Wooster, Wooster
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy	Denison University, Granville
Russell Sage College, Troy	Heidelberg College, Tiffin
St. Bonaventure's College and Seminary, St. Bonaventure	Hiram College, Hiram
St. John's College, Brooklyn	John Carroll University, Cleveland
St. Joseph's College for Women, Brooklyn	Kenyon College, Gambier
St. Lawrence University, Canton	Lake Erie College, Painesville
St. Stephen's College, Annandale	Marietta College, Marietta
Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs	Miami University, Oxford
Syracuse University, Syracuse	Mt. Union College, Alliance
Union College, Schenectady	Muskingum College, New Concord
United States Military Academy, West Point	Notre Dame College, South Euclid
University of Buffalo, Buffalo	Oberlin College, Oberlin
University of Rochester, Rochester	Ohio State University, Columbus
Vassar College, Poughkeepsie	Ohio University, Athens
Wagner Memorial Lutheran College, Staten Island	Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware
Wells College, Aurora	Otterbein University, Westerville
William Smith College, Geneva	University of Akron, Akron
NORTH CAROLINA	
Catawba College, Salisbury	University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati
Davidson College, Davidson	University of the City of Toledo, Toledo
Duke University, Durham	University of Dayton, Dayton
East Carolina State Teachers College, Greenville	Ursuline College, Cleveland
Greensboro College, Greensboro	Western College, Oxford
Guilford College, Guilford College	Western Reserve University, Cleveland
Lenoir-Rhyne College, Hickory	Wittenberg College, Springfield
Meredith College, Raleigh	Xavier University, Cincinnati
North Carolina College for Women, Greensboro	OKLAHOMA
North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh	Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater
Salem College, Winston-Salem	Oklahoma College for Women, Chickasha
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill	Phillips University, Enid
Wake Forest College, Wake Forest	University of Oklahoma, Norman
NORTH DAKOTA	
Jamestown College, Jamestown	University of Tulsa, Tulsa
North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo	OREGON
University of North Dakota, Grand Forks	Albany College, Albany
	Linfield College, McMinnville
	Marylhurst College, Oswego
	Oregon State Agricultural College, Corvallis
	Pacific University, Forest Grove
	Reed College, Portland
	University of Oregon, Eugene
	Willamette University, Salem
PENNSYLVANIA	
	Albright College, Reading
	Allegheny College, Meadville
	Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr

- Bucknell University, Lewisburg
 Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh
 Dickinson College, Carlisle
 Drexel Institute, Philadelphia
 Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster
 Geneva College, Beaver Falls
 Gettysburg College, Gettysburg
 Grove City College, Grove City
 Haverford College, Haverford
 Immaculata College, Immaculata
 Juniata College, Huntingdon
 Lafayette College, Easton
 LaSalle College, Philadelphia
 Lebanon Valley College, Annville
 Lehigh University, Bethlehem
 Lincoln University, Lincoln University
 Marywood College, Scranton
 Mercyhurst College, Erie
 Moravian College and Theological Seminary, Bethlehem
 Mt. St. Joseph College, Philadelphia
 Muhlenberg College, Allentown
 Pennsylvania College for Women, Pittsburgh
 Pennsylvania State College, State College
 Rosemont College, Rosemont
 St. Joseph's College, Philadelphia
 St. Thomas College, Scranton
 St. Vincent College, Latrobe
 Seton Hill College, Greensburg
 Susquehanna University, Selinsgrove
 Swarthmore College, Swarthmore
 Temple University, Philadelphia
 Thiel College, Greenville
 University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia
 University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh
 Ursinus College, Collegeville
 Villanova College, Villanova
 Washington and Jefferson College, Washington
 Westminster College, New Wilmington
 Wilson College, Chambersburg
- RHODE ISLAND**
- Brown University, Providence
 Pembroke College, Providence
 Rhode Island State College, Kingston
- SOUTH CAROLINA**
- Clemson Agricultural College of South Carolina, Clemson
 Coker College, Hartsville
 College of Charleston, Charleston
 Converse College, Spartanburg
 Erskine College, Due West
 Furman University, Greenville
 Limestone College, Gaffney
- Presbyterian College of South Carolina
 Clinton
 The Citadel, Charleston
 University of South Carolina, Columbia
 Winthrop College, Rock Hill
 Wofford College, Spartanburg
- SOUTH DAKOTA**
- Augustana College, Sioux Falls
 Dakota Wesleyan University, Mitchell
 Huron College, Huron
 South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Brookings
 South Dakota State School of Mines, Rapid City
 University of South Dakota, Vermillion
 Yankton College, Yankton
- TENNESSEE**
- Carson-Newman College, Jefferson City
 Fisk University, Nashville
 George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville
 Maryville College, Maryville
 Southwestern, Memphis
 Tennessee State Teachers College, Johnson City
 Tennessee State Teachers College, Memphis
 Tennessee State Teachers College, Murfreesboro
 Tusculum College, Greeneville
 University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga
 University of the South, Sewanee
 University of Tennessee, Knoxville
 Vanderbilt University, Nashville
- TEXAS**
- Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station
 Baylor College for Women, Belton
 Baylor University, Waco
 East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce
 Incarnate Word College, San Antonio
 North Texas State Teachers College, Denton
 Our Lady of the Lake College, San Antonio
 Rice Institute, Houston
 Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville
 Simmons University, Abilene
 Southern Methodist University, Dallas
 Southwest Texas State Teachers College, San Marcos
 Southwestern University, Georgetown
 Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College, Nacogdoches
 Sul Ross State Teachers College, Alpine

Texas Christian University, Fort Worth
 Texas College of Arts and Industries,
 Denton

Texas Technological College, Lubbock
 Trinity University, Waxahachie

University of Texas, Austin

West Texas State Teachers College, Canyon

UTAH

Brigham Young University, Provo
 University of Utah, Salt Lake City
 Utah Agricultural College, Logan

VERMONT

Middlebury College, Middlebury
 University of Vermont, Burlington

VIRGINIA

Bridgewater College, Bridgewater
 College of William and Mary in Virginia,
 Williamsburg

Emory and Henry College, Emory
 Hampden-Sydney College, Hampden-Sydney

Lynchburg College, Lynchburg
 Mary Baldwin College, Staunton
 Randolph-Macon College for Men, Ashland

Randolph-Macon Woman's College,
 Lynchburg

Roanoke College, Salem
 State Teachers College, East Radford
 State Teachers College, Farmville
 State Teachers College, Fredericksburg
 State Teachers College, Harrisonburg
 Sweet Briar College, Sweet Briar
 University of Richmond, Richmond
 University of Virginia, Charlottesville

Virginia Military Institute, Lexington
 Virginia Agricultural College and Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg
 Washington and Lee University, Lexington

WASHINGTON

College of Puget Sound, Tacoma
 Gonzaga University, Spokane
 State College of Washington, Pullman
 University of Washington, Seattle
 Whitman College, Walla Walla

WEST VIRGINIA

Bethany College, Bethany
 Concord State Teachers College, Athens
 Marshall College, Huntington
 West Virginia State College, Institute
 West Virginia University, Morgantown

WISCONSIN

Beloit College, Beloit
 Carroll College, Waukesha
 Lawrence College, Appleton
 Marquette University, Milwaukee
 Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee
 Mount Mary College, Milwaukee
 Ripon College, Ripon
 Stout Institute, Menomonie
 University of Wisconsin, Madison
 Wisconsin State Teachers College, La Crosse
 Wisconsin State Teachers College, Milwaukee
 Wisconsin State Teachers College, Oshkosh

WYOMING

University of Wyoming, Laramie

Teachers' Colleges

CALIFORNIA

State Teachers College, San Diego

IDaho

State Normal School, Albion
 State Normal School, Lewiston

MINNESOTA

State Teachers' College, Moorhead
 State Teachers' College, Winona
 St. Cloud State Teachers' College, St. Cloud

MISSOURI

Harris Teachers' College, St. Louis
 Lincoln University, Jefferson City

MONTANA

State Normal School, Dillon

NEBRASKA

State Normal School and Teachers' College, Chadron

State Normal School and Teachers' College, Kearney

State Normal School and Teachers' College, Peru

State Normal School and Teachers' College, Wayne

NORTH DAKOTA

North Dakota State Normal School, Dickinson
 State Normal and Industrial School, Ellendale
 State Normal School, Mayville
 State Teachers' College, Valley City
 Teachers' College, Minot

OHIO

State Normal College, Bowling Green
 State Normal College, Kent

OKLAHOMA

Central State Teachers' College, Edmond
 East Central State Teachers' College, Ada
 Northeastern State Teachers' College,
 Tahlequah
 Northwestern State Teachers' College,
 Alva
 Southeastern State Teachers' College,
 Durant
 Southwestern State Teachers' College,
 Weatherford

OREGON

Eastern Oregon State Normal School—La
 Grande
 Southern Oregon Normal School, Ashland
 State Normal School, Monmouth

SOUTH DAKOTA

North Normal and Industrial School,
 Aberdeen
 State Normal School, Madison
 South Dakota State Normal School,
 Spearfish

WASHINGTON

State Normal School, Bellingham
 State Normal School, Cheney
 State Normal School, Ellensburg

WEST VIRGINIA

West Virginia State Normal School, Fair-
 mont

WISCONSIN

State Normal School, Superior

Junior Colleges**ALABAMA**

Marion Institute, Marion

ARIZONA

Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix

ARKANSAS

Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical
 College, Jonesboro
 Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical
 College, Monticelli
 Arkansas Polytechnic Institute, Russell-
 ville

Central Junior College, Conway
 Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock
 State Agricultural and Mechanical Col-
 lege, Magnolia

COLORADO

Colorado Women's College, Denver
 Regis College, Denver

CONNECTICUT

Junior College of Connecticut, Bridgeport

FLORIDA

St. Petersburg Junior College, St. Peters-
 burg

GEORGIA

Andrew College, Cuthbert
 Junior College of Augusta, Augusta

IDAHO

University of Idaho, Southern Branch,
 Pocatello

Northwest Nazarene College, Nampa

ILLINOIS

Blackburn College, Carlinville
 Crane Junior College, Chicago
 Elmhurst College, Elmhurst
 Frances Shimer School, Mount Carroll
 Joliet Junior College, Joliet
 La Salle-Peru-Oglesby Junior College, La
 Salle

LINCOLN COLLEGE

Lincoln College, Lincoln
 Lyons Township Junior College, La
 Grange
 Monticello Seminary, Godfrey
 Morton Junior College, Cicero
 North Park Junior College, Chicago
 Y. M. C. A. School of Liberal Arts, Chi-
 cago

INDIANA

St. Joseph's College, Collegeville

IOWA

Graceland College, Lamoni
 Mason City Junior College, Mason City
 Mt. Mercy Junior College, Cedar Rapids
 Ottumwa Heights College, Ottumwa

KANSAS

St. Mary College, The, Leavenworth

KENTUCKY

Bethel Woman's College, Hopkinsville
 Cumberland College, Williamsburg
 Nazareth Junior College, Nazareth
 Pikeville College, Pikeville

MASSACHUSETTS

Junior College of Bradford Academy,
 Bradford
 Lasell Seminary, Auburndale

MICHIGAN

Bay City Junior College, Bay City
 Emmanuel Missionary College, Berrien
 Springs
 Flint Junior College, Flint
 Grand Rapids Junior College, Grand
 Rapids
 Highland Park Junior College, Highland
 Park
 Muskegon Junior College, Muskegon
 Port Huron Junior College, Port Huron

MINNESOTA

Duluth Junior College, Duluth
 Eveleth Junior College, Eveleth
 Hibbing Junior College, Hibbing
 Rochester Junior College, Rochester
 Virginia Junior College, Virginia

MISSISSIPPI

Gulf Park College, Gulfport
 Harrison-Stone-Jackson Agricultural High School and Junior College, Perinton
 Hinds County Junior College, Raymond
 Pearl River College, Poplarville
 Sunflower County Junior College, Moorhead
 Whitworth College, Brookhaven

MISSOURI

Christian College, Columbia
 Flat River Junior College, Flat River
 Junior College of Kansas City, Kansas City
 Kemper Military School, Boonville
 The Principia, St. Louis
 St. Joseph Junior College, St. Joseph
 Stephens Junior College, Columbia
 Teachers College of Kansas City, Kansas City

Wentworth Military Academy, Lexington
 William Woods College, Fulton

MONTANA

Intermountain Union College, Helena
 Mt. St. Charles College, Helena

NEBRASKA

Union College, College View

NORTH CAROLINA

Mars Hill College, Mars Hill
 St. Mary's School, Raleigh

OKLAHOMA

Northeastern Oklahoma Junior College, Miami
 Panhandle Agricultural and Mechanical College, Goodwill

OREGON

Mt. Angel College, St. Benedict

SOUTH DAKOTA

Sioux Falls College, Sioux Falls

TENNESSEE

Hiwassee College, Madisonville
 Nashville Agricultural Normal Institute, Madison
 Tennessee Wesleyan College, Athens
 Ward Belmont College, Nashville

TEXAS

Brownsville Junior College, Brownsville
 John Tarleton Agricultural College, Stephenville
 Lon Morris College, Jacksonville
 South Park College, Beaumont
 Texarkana Junior College, Texarkana
 Tyler Junior College, Tyler

VIRGINIA

Averett College, Danville
 Sullins College, Bristol
 Virginia Intermont College, Bristol

WEST VIRGINIA

Potomac State School, Keyser

ADDENDA

The following institutions were accredited by the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools at its meeting April 9, 1932, but were received too late to be included in the foregoing list. They should be so included.

CALIFORNIA

Loyola University, Los Angeles
 University of Santa Clara, Santa Clara
 University of San Francisco, San Francisco

MONTANA

Montana State School of Mines, Butte
 Montana State Normal School, Dillon

Junior Colleges**CALIFORNIA**

Pacific Union College, Angwin

UTAH

Snow College, Ephraim
 Weber College, Ogden

MONTANA

Northern Montana College, Havre

WASHINGTON

Walla Walla College, College Place

Teachers Colleges**MONTANA**

Eastern Montana Normal School, Billings

OREGON

Marylhurst Normal School, Oswego

WASHINGTON

Holy Names Normal School, Spokane

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C. R. MANN

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Constitution

Officers and Members 1932-33

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

The Fifteenth Annual Meeting

THE Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the American Council on Education was held in the Assembly Room of the Brookings Institution, May 6 and 7, 1932. Nineteen constituent members were represented by twenty-nine delegates, thirty-two institutional members by forty-eight delegates, and six associate members by six delegates.

The Chairman of the Council, Dr. A. B. Meredith, presided.

Reports of the Executive Committee and of the Treasurer, given in full in this RECORD, were presented in writing.

Chancellor Capen presented a report as Chairman of the Committee on Problems and Plans in Education, which is also given in full in this issue.

In the absence of President Cowling the report of the Committee on Educational Finance was presented by Dr. John H. MacCracken. The report called attention to the action of Congress discontinuing appropriations for the National School Finance Survey and reducing the budget of the Office of Education so that the Office will have 37 per cent less to spend in 1932-33 than it had in 1931-32, also to the defeat in the House of the proposal to reduce federal grants for vocational education. It pointed out that the present disposition to appropriate an increased share of surplus wealth to the current expenses of the Federal Government would tend to withdraw support from voluntary enterprises and transfer a larger share of the burden of education to taxation. These changes emphasize the need for a strong committee of the Council in the field of educational finance.

The report gave a summary of the results of the questionnaire sent out by the committee in March to 250 institutions which are members of the Council. Replies from two-thirds of these institutions had been received by April 10. The report stated that the outstanding and encouraging fact of the inquiry was that 137 of the 168 institutions expected to

balance their budgets for the year 1932-33, and that this would be accomplished with only about one-third of the institutions making reductions in salary, although 40 per cent of the institutions would reduce the number on their staffs.

Professor Robert H. Fife presented the report as Chairman of the Committee on Modern Language Teaching. The committee, which consists of seven members, five in the United States and two in Canada, has continued to operate under a grant of \$8,000 from the Carnegie Foundation. A meeting of the committee was held in Madison, Wisconsin, in December, and another meeting will be held in June. Allotments have been made for six experimental projects. Three thousand copies of the summary of the reports of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages have been distributed free during the past year. The importance of centralized effort was emphasized. Dr. Fife stated that the committee had sought, without success, to find means for the establishment of a central agency of experiment and research.

Dr. Mann presented the annual Report of the Director of the Council, commenting particularly on the results of three national studies made during the year—the National Census, showing a decrease in illiteracy and increase in school attendance; the report of the Committee on Law Enforcement, showing increase in crime; and the report of the National Advisory Committee on relations of the Federal Government to education, tracing the part the Federal Government had taken in education and the somewhat haphazard contributions it had made, and establishing certain principles which should guide federal participation in the future.

Upon presentation of the reports, the Council engaged in general discussion of the effect of the financial depression on education, with special reference to student attendance, in which Professor Fife, President Robinson, Dr. MacCracken, Dr. Rufus A. Lyman, President Apple of Hood College, Dean Johnston of Minnesota, President Baker of South Carolina, Mr. Will Shafrroth, President C. C. McCracken of Connecticut, Chairman Meredith, Dean Cameron of the State

Teachers College at West Chester, Pennsylvania, and Dean Stimson of Goucher College participated.

The Chairman appointed, as a Nominating Committee, President Frederick B. Robinson of the College of the City of New York, Dr. F. J. Kelly of the Office of Education, representing the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and President Parke R. Kolbe of Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute.

Luncheon was served to the Council and its guests at the Cosmos Club.

The afternoon session was devoted to a consideration of the general topic, "Who and What Determine the Educational Policies of the Professional Schools."

Dean Luther A. Weigle of Yale University spoke for Theological Schools, Hon. Ray Lyman Wilbur and Dean E. B. McKinley of George Washington University for Medical Schools, Hon. James Grafton Rogers and Mr. Will Shafrroth for Law Schools. The paper of President W. E. Wickenden on Engineering Schools was read by Dean R. C. Disque of Drexel Institute, in the absence of President Wickenden.

Dean Weigle told of the organization of the Conference of Theological Seminaries and Colleges in the United States and Canada, and the comprehensive study of theological education which has been in progress under its auspices the past three years.

The papers brought out the fact that while medical schools had been decreasing law schools had been increasing, and that it was the general feeling that while standardization had done its work in raising the level of medical education the time had now come to relax the detailed requirements and permit the schools greater freedom both in the matter of entrance requirements and of the curriculum.

In the case of law schools it was emphasized that there was still need for tightening up the requirements. It was pointed out that as yet the requirements for law schools had not attempted any specifications affecting the curriculum except in the matter of a course in legal ethics. This recommendation has not, however, been made a requirement for accreditation.

ing. The relation of political ideals of democracy to requirements in the legal profession was named as a factor which had operated to delay the raising of standards in the legal profession. Attention was called to the wide discrepancy existing in the various states in the matter of requirements for admission to the bar and to the recently organized American Association of Bar Examiners.

General discussion of professional education followed, in which Dean Doyle, Dean Johnston, Mr. Shafrroth, Chancellor Capen, Dr. Lyman, President Baker, Dr. A. Z. Reed of New York, Assistant Secretary of State Rogers, Dr. Mann, Mr. Robert Hoppock, and Mr. Alexander B. Andrews, Secretary of the Council of Legal Education, participated.

At the Saturday morning session Dr. A. B. Meredith presented the annual Chairman's Address on the subject, "State Policies with Reference to Teacher Preparation," stressing the obligation resting upon central education boards of control to provide for state-wide planning and controlled programs in the preparation and placement of teachers.

Dean Johnston of Minnesota presented the report of the Advisory Committee on College Testing, and stated that 19,713 sophomore students in 144 colleges, representing thirty-eight states, had taken identical tests May 3 and 4. The tests included, in addition to the sections on intelligence and the fundamentals of English, 221 questions on foreign literature, 180 questions on fine arts, 288 questions in history and social studies, and 216 questions in general science.

Dean Johnston also submitted, on behalf of Dr. Ben D. Wood, a condensed report of the activities of the Cooperative Test Service for the year 1931-32, showing that at least two comparable forms of objective examinations are now available for general use in English, French, Spanish, German, Latin, Algebra, Plane Geometry, Physics, Solid Geometry and Trigonometry. These forms will be revised during the summer and reprinted for use in the fall for freshman placement testing programs.

Dr. John C. Merriam of the Carnegie Institution addressed

the Council on "Educational Values of Recreation," raising the question whether more of the joy that accompanies recreation might not be made a normal element of the educational process. The address is printed in full in this number of the RECORD.

Dr. John J. Coss of Columbia University followed with a discussion of "Education for Leisure," stressing the growing importance of this subject as the number of hours of productive toil required for livelihood diminishes.

Dr. Coss also presented a report on behalf of Dean Hawkes, outlining a plan developed at a recent conference at Princeton for the preparation of a book on Examinations, which would have as its purpose the placing at the disposal of the million teachers who must make or use examinations the best knowledge and techniques now available.

General Rees pointed out the place the comprehensive examination would hold in the new program now being mapped out for engineering, particularly the comprehensive examination to be given at the end of sophomore year to determine whether the prospective engineer is ready for student membership in one of the major engineering societies, and in connection with the five-year development program for the attainment of successive grades in the societies by the recently graduated engineers. He deprecated the great stress on the distinction between work and leisure and emphasized the fact that work, education, and leisure were integrated every day in the life of every individual.

Dean Judd warned of the dangers that might result from the preparation of a manual on examinations if it were so used as to contribute to the crystallization of present practice.

President Kent called attention to the significance of the address of the Director of the Council and emphasized the need of special consideration at this time of the relation of general training in higher education to the social welfare of democracy, with a view to the preparation of citizens who should participate more actively in responsibilities of government.

Dean Johnston pointed out that even in preparing students for teaching the State included almost nothing in the curriculum intended definitely for training for citizenship. He called attention to the new type of junior college to be opened by the University of Minnesota in the fall intended to give a general education, and to include wide survey courses dealing with the things the citizen should know. He expressed the hope that there would be more differentiation of educational institutions of this sort.

Upon nomination of the Nominating Committee, the following officers of the Council were unanimously elected:

Chairman: President R. M. Hughes, Iowa State College, representing the Association of Land Grant Colleges.

First Vice-Chairman: Professor H. C. Lancaster, Johns Hopkins University, representing the American Association of University Professors.

Second Vice-Chairman: Dean F. W. Shipley, Washington University, representing the Association of Urban Universities.

Secretary: Professor Doak S. Campbell, George Peabody College for Teachers, representing the American Association of Junior Colleges.

Treasurer: Mr. Corcoran Thom, President, American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

Executive Committee: *For 3 years*—Dean Augustus Trowbridge, Princeton University, representing the Association of American Universities; Dean F. L. Bishop, University of Pittsburgh, representing the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education. *For 2 years*—Dean Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, representing the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; Professor Florence Bamberger, Johns Hopkins University, representing the National Education Association. *For 1 year*—Chancellor Samuel P. Capen, University of Buffalo, representing the Association of American Colleges; Dr. P. J. McCormick, Catholic University of America, representing the National Catholic Educational Association.

The recommendation of the nominating committee, that the Constitution be amended so as to make eligible for election as officers and members of the Executive Committee representatives of any institutional member, was referred to

the Executive Committee for consideration to submit an amendment to the Constitution if thought wise before the annual meeting next year.

The Secretary reported that the Executive Committee had voted to create new committees on the field of graduate instruction, on standards with special reference to principles governing the formulation of the accredited list of the Council, and on the completion and formal adoption of a code of academic costume.

After a vote of thanks to the Brookings Institution for its hospitality the Council adjourned at noon.

Report of the Executive Committee

OUR regular meetings of the Executive Committee have been held, October 3, 1931; December 12, 1931; February 13, 1932; and May 5, 1932. An average of ten out of a possible eleven members were present at the meetings in person or by proxy.

There were no changes in the membership of the committee during the year.

Membership in the Council has been adversely affected by the economic conditions. One constituent member, ten institutional members, and two associate members have withdrawn for financial reasons; one new constituent member, eight new institutional members, and three new associate members have been added. A few institutions have given warning that unless financial conditions improve they may not be able to maintain membership another year. The State Budget Bureau of North Carolina directed termination of membership in inter-state organizations in the case of the North Carolina College for Women.

Withdrew

Association of American Medical Colleges
Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
Elmira College, Elmira, New York
Georgetown College, Georgetown, Kentucky
Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois
Loretto Heights College, Denver, Colorado
Mount Mary College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
North Carolina College for Women, Greensboro, North Carolina
Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri
St. Mary's College, St. Mary's, Kansas
Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wisconsin
Religious Education Association
Alumni Association of American Rhodes Scholars

New Members Added

Council of the Section of Legal Education and Admissions
to the Bar of the American Bar Association
Albertus Magnus College, New Haven, Connecticut
College of Mt. St. Joseph-on-the-Ohio, Mt. St. Joseph,
Ohio
Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville, Georgia
Loyola College, Baltimore, Maryland
Loyola University, Los Angeles, California
Mary Baldwin College, Staunton, Virginia
University of San Francisco, San Francisco, California.
Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pennsylvania
National Advisory Council on Radio in Education
National Council of Teachers of English
United Chapters of Phi Beta Kappa

The year closed with a total of 24 constituent members as compared with 24 in 1931, 24 associate members as compared with 23 in 1931, and 254 institutional members as compared with 256 in 1931. As institutional membership is limited to accredited institutions 40 per cent of the institutions eligible now cooperate in the maintenance of the Council.

At the annual meeting in May, 1931, effect was given to the recommendation of the Executive Committee and the Council duly incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia. A corporate seal has been formally adopted by the Council with the emblems of seven stars and three torches. As an educational corporation the Council is now exempt from federal and local taxation, and gifts and bequests to the Council enjoy the same exemptions as do those to other charitable organizations.

The removal of the Brookings Institution to its new building made vacant the seventh floor of 744 Jackson Place. This space had the advantage of windows on the south side of the building, so it seemed desirable for the Council to lease the seventh in place of the fifth floor for its headquarters. The transfer was effected during the month of August.

The following standing committees were authorized for the current year:

Committee on Problems and Plans in Education: Samuel P. Capen, Chairman, Lotus D. Coffman, William John Cooper, Herbert E. Hawkes, Charles H. Judd, Beardsley Ruml, William F. Russell, Eugene R. Smith, Henry Suzzallo, Edward L. Thorndike, David E. Weglein, C. R. Mann, *ex-officio*, and J. H. MacCracken, *ex-officio*. This committee is continuing its endeavor to formulate integrated plans of investigation and experimentation.

Committee on Modern Language Teaching: R. H. Fife, Chairman; J. P. W. Crawford, Vice-Chairman; A. Coleman, Secretary; H. E. Ford, V. A. C. Henmon. This committee is studying the consequences of its report and stimulating further experimentation along the lines recommended in its report.

Committee on Materials of Instruction: Charles H. Judd, Chairman; William John Cooper, Albert B. Meredith, and C. R. Mann, *ex-officio*. This committee is developing supplementary materials in cooperation with ten public school systems for use in connection with the social studies.

Committee on the Study of Pharmacy: L. L. Walton, Chairman; A. C. Taylor, H. C. Christensen, C. B. Jordan, E. H. Kraus, C. H. LaWall, E. F. Kelly, W. W. Horne, H. A. B. Dunning, J. G. Beard, Secretary; C. R. Mann, David A. Robertson, W. W. Charters, G. F. Zook, and S. P. Capen. Two years ago this committee outlined a plan for a study of pharmaceutical education to determine the essentials of a curriculum based on an analysis of the requirements of the profession. The committee has not yet succeeded in securing financial support for this study.

Committee on Personnel Methods: H. E. Hawkes, Chairman; F. F. Bradshaw, W. W. Charters, J. J. Coss, A. B. Crawford, M. H. S. Hayes, V. A. C. Henmon, H. W. Holmes, L. B. Hopkins, D. T. Howard, Esther Lloyd-Jones, C. R. Lingley, C. R. Mann, Grace E. Manson, J. H. MacCracken, P. C. Packer, D. G. Paterson, D. A. Robertson, A. H. Ruggles, W. D. Scott, E. K. Strong, M. R. Trabue, A. L. Williston, Ben D. Wood, C. W. Yoakum. This committee has prepared its report and is formulating through various sub-committees practical plans for further study of particular areas of the personnel problem.

Committee on the Cooperative Test Service: H. E. Hawkes, Chairman; L. B. Hopkins, H. W. Holmes, W. W. Charters, A. H. Ruggles, P. C. Packer, C. R. Mann, *ex-officio*, and J. H. MacCracken, *ex-officio*. This committee is identical with the Central Committee of the Committee on Personnel Methods. It is supervising the work of the Cooperative Test Service on the grant of the General Education Board for this purpose. The cooperative experiment in testing college sophomores in a large number of colleges which was made this week is under guidance of this committee.

Sub-committees of the Problems and Plans Committee have been organized during the year as follows:

Committee on the Administrative Phases of State Educational Systems: A. B. Meredith, Chairman; F. W. Ballou, Luther Gulick, Lent D. Upson, Paul V. Betters, and George F. Zook. This sub-committee is formulating plans for a national study of the administrative phases of state and community educational systems.

Committee on Educational Finance: Donald J. Cowling, Chairman; Thomas S. Gates, Lloyd Morey, Robert G. Sproul, C. R. Mann, *ex-officio*, and J. H. MacCracken, *ex-officio*. This sub-committee is formulating plans for a fundamental study of educational finance.

Committee on Exploratory Study of Unitary Differential Traits: E. L. Thorndike, Chairman; K. J. Holzinger, C. L. Hull, T. L. Kelley, K. S. Lashley, and Charles Spearman. This sub-committee is making an exploratory study of the problem of unitary differential traits.

On vote of the committee the Director brought to the attention of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States the desirability of early accrediting of teachers colleges and of junior colleges in their territory. The letter was discussed at the annual meeting of the Middle States Association and referred to a sub-committee for report. It is understood that the Association views favorably the accrediting of junior colleges but does not wish to undertake the accrediting of teachers colleges. This raises the question whether the Council should adopt a new policy in the case of professional schools, using the lists of functional accrediting agencies for professional schools, and continuing to use the lists of regional agencies for colleges of liberal arts, and if so, how it shall reconcile the lists where professional schools are included by regional associations in their lists of colleges.

The Council has received during the year a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of \$5,000 for the Exploratory Study of Unitary Differential Traits, and of \$8,000 for the Committee on Modern Language Teaching, and a grant of \$7,500 from the General Education Board to make possible the publication of the new edition of the handbook of American Universities and Colleges.

The Handbook was published February 27, 1932, and a complimentary copy has been distributed to each member of the Council, to representatives of foreign governments in

Washington, and to a selected list of foreign educational offices and institutions.

Dr. Anson Phelps Stokes brought to the attention of the Executive Committee a project for producing an encyclopedia of the Negro, and invited the Council to cooperate in the enterprise, the other organizations interested being the American Council of Learned Societies, the National Research Council, the Social Science Research Council, and the Phelps-Stokes Foundation. The Executive Committee authorized the appointment of two representatives of the American Council on Education to confer with the representatives of other organizations in fostering the project.

Mr. Frank E. Robbins, Assistant to the President of the University of Michigan, has suggested to the committee the desirability of the Council taking the lead in securing the completion and formal adoption of the code of academic costume of which no official revision has been made since 1894.

President R. M. Hughes of Iowa State College has suggested to the Committee the desirability of the appointment of a committee of the Council to consider the field of graduate instruction, and to suggest a plan by which the Council might offer in such official publications as the Handbook of American Universities and Colleges a more adequate presentation of graduate instruction in higher institutions not members of the Association of American Universities, particularly in the technological field.

The Executive Committee has given considerable attention to the problem of strengthening the structure of the Council so as to make it more fully serve the needs of education for a voluntary national center of cooperation. The present method of financing the Council by annual fees from its members insures complete control of the organization by the educational institutions themselves. This seems to be a fundamental necessity in any appropriate national organization. On the other hand, this limits the support of the Council in a way that hampers it from participating in many activities that need national action.

This is particularly evident in legislative hearings where experience shows that the voice of education receives little real attention. There is a growing need for national cooperation concerning methods and standards of accrediting, concerning policies of specialized and professional education, and many other similar national problems. Your committee has this matter under advisement and will give it further careful study during the coming year.

The report of the Treasurer indicates that the Council has lived within its resources and is still solvent, in spite of the depression. The financial condition of the Council is best understood by consideration of the bank balance as of April 30, each year. This rose steadily from \$2,454.55 in 1927 to \$16,685.94 in 1931. The Council was gradually accumulating a surplus. The bank balance this year is \$7,422.01, showing that the Council has drawn on this surplus to the extent of \$9,263.93 during the past year. This is partially accounted for by the fact that the dues from members have been \$3,920 less this year than they were last year.

Because of this situation, the proposed Director's Budget for the coming year has been reduced to \$47,880 as compared with \$54,400 last year. To accomplish this it has been necessary to cut salaries 5 per cent for all members of the staff. The proposed budget for the coming year is attached. The Executive Committee recommends that the Director's Budget be approved as submitted, that the Director be authorized to make expenditures in accordance therewith, and that the Executive Committee be authorized to restore the salaries of the staff to the rates of the past year whenever the finances of the Council warrant such action.

Respectfully submitted,

HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE,

Secretary.

Director's Budget, 1932-33

ESTIMATED RESOURCES

Membership dues, 1932-33.....	\$35,000.00
Reimbursements for services.....	8,000.00
Bank balance, April 30, 1932.....	7,422.01
	<u>\$50,422.01</u>

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES

	<i>Fiscal year 1931-32</i>	<i>Fiscal Year</i>
	<i>Actual</i>	<i>1932-33</i>
	<i>Authorized</i>	<i>Disbursements</i>
Rent.....	\$ 4,500	\$ 4,621.82
Salary of Director.....	12,000	12,000.00
Salary of Associate Director..	8,400	8,400.00
Salaries of assistants.....	13,500	13,417.68
Traveling expenses.....	2,500	2,740.42
Stationery, printing and supplies.....	1,500	1,254.81
Telephone and telegrams.....	500	425.50
Postage.....	600	704.00
Furniture and appliances....	400	38.50
EDUCATIONAL RECORD.....	4,000	4,943.82
Vocational exploration.....	4,500	4,065.60
General expense.....	1,000	851.73
Com. on Supplementary Materials of Instruction.....	1,000	298.50
	<u>\$54,400</u>	<u>\$53,762.38</u>
		<u>\$47,880</u>

Funds for Special Projects available in 1932-33:

Committee on Modern Language Teaching.....	\$ 10,960.21
Cooperative Test Fund.....	93,529.47
Committee on Problems and Plans in Education.....	21,801.74
Committee on Personnel Methods, balance April 30, 1932.....	2,195.55
Exploratory Study of Unitary Differential Traits in Human Nature, balance April 30, 1932.....	4,291.37
Total.....	<u>\$132,778.34</u>

Treasurer's Report

AMERICAN SECURITY AND TRUST COMPANY
WASHINGTON, D. C., May 5, 1932.

DR. C. R. MANN, DIRECTOR,
American Council on Education,
744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

DEAR DR. MANN:

I herewith submit a statement of F. W. Lafrentz & Company, being an audit for the period from May 1, 1931, to April 30, 1932, on the following account of the American Council on Education:

GENERAL FUND

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES

From May 1, 1931, to April 30, 1932

RECEIPTS

Constituent Members.....	\$ 2,200.00
Associate Members.....	200.00
Institutional Members.....	<u>32,250.00</u>
	\$34,650.00
Contributions:	
To Committee on Problems and Plans in Education, Julius Rosenwald Fund.....	\$4,895.31
To Payne Fund:	
Education on Radio.....	300.00
To Handbook American Universities and Colleges, General Education Board.....	7,293.62
To Exploratory Study Unitary Differential Traits in Human Nature, Carnegie Corporation.....	<u>5,000.00</u>
	17,488.93
Sale of Psychological Tests.....	11,841.99
Sale of Record Cards, Scales, etc.....	1,714.12
Royalty from Sale of Achievement Tests.....	249.46
Reimbursements for Administration of Grants:	
Modern Foreign Language Study.....	\$ 160.00
Cooperative Test Fund.....	3,175.00
Committee on Problems and Plans in Education.....	<u>302.82</u>
	3,637.82
Rental from Furniture.....	30.00
Interest on Bank Deposits.....	<u>220.04</u>
Total Receipts.....	\$69,832.36

Total Receipts, Brought Forward.....	\$69,832.36
Cash on hand, May 1, 1931:	
American Security and Trust Company.....	20,129.52
	<hr/>
	\$89,961.88

DISBURSEMENTS

Salaries:

Director.....	\$12,000.00
Associate Director.....	8,400.00
Assistants.....	11,522.68
	<hr/>
	\$31,922.68
Rent—Net.....	4,621.82
Stationery, Printing and Supplies.....	1,254.81
Postage.....	704.00
Telephone and Telegrams.....	425.50
General Expense.....	851.73
Traveling Expense Director.....	1,061.70
Associate Director.....	933.10
Executive Committee.....	745.62

Publication Expenses EDUCATIONAL RECORD:

Expenses.....	\$ 5,338.40
Less: Subscriptions.....	394.58
	<hr/>
	4,943.82

Psychological Test Experiment:

Psychological Tests.....	\$ 3,539.57
Thurstone—General Expense.....	4,236.83
	<hr/>
	7,776.40

Committee on Personnel Methods.....

Furniture and Fixtures.....	1,302.99
	38.50

Industrial Cooperation:

C. E. Hewitt, Salary.....	\$ 3,600.00
C. E. Hewitt, Traveling Expenses.....	465.60
	<hr/>
	4,065.60

Payne Fund:

Salaries.....	\$ 600.00
Armstrong Perry Expenses.....	404.33
Refund of Unexpended Balance.....	140.00

1,144.33

298.50

4,262.55

7,293.62

Committee on Supplementary Materials of Instruction....

Committee on Problems and Plans in Education.....

Handbook American Universities and Colleges.....

Exploratory Study Unitary Differential Traits in Human

Nature.....	708.63
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Total Disbursements.....	\$74,355.90
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TREASURER'S REPORT

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Total Disbursements, Brought Forward	\$74,355.90
Cash on hand, April 30, 1932:	
American Security and Trust Company—	
American Council on Education—General.....	\$ 7,422.01
Committee on Personnel Methods.....	2,195.55
Committee on Problems and Plans in Education.....	1,697.05
Exploratory Study Unitary Differential Traits in Human Nature.....	4,291.37

	15,605.98

	\$89,961.88

I desire to submit this paper as my Annual Report as your Treasurer for the past year.

Very truly yours,
CORCORAN THOM,
Treasurer, American Council on Education.

The Report of the Director

Consequences

DURING the past year everyone has done a lot of hard thinking. Economic conditions have made us do this. But while these economic conditions have made us think whether we wanted to or not, they have not constituted the only source of mental stimulation for educators. Three important reports of particular interest to school men have appeared during the past year. It is to these that I desire to call particular attention.

The first of these is the report of the Census of 1930. This shows that in the past decade illiteracy has been reduced from 6 per cent to 4.3 per cent, that the percentage of children seven to thirteen years of age who are attending school has increased from 90.6 to 95.3, that more than half the young people of high school age are attending high school, and that about one-quarter of these high school students continue in some institution of higher learning.

Could Horace Mann return to see this outgrowth of his pioneering labor, he would surely rejoice. He might be astounded at the material equipment and the expenditures now freely made for the school system which he did so much to establish. With such school equipment and such almost universal attendance he might well look for the realization of his prophecy that under these conditions crime would be on the wane and the costs of such schooling would be largely paid by the saving in the expenditures for prisons and police.

Under these conditions it is fortunate that Horace Mann cannot return to read the second of the significant documents that has been published this year—the Report of the Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement. Most people think that this report dealt only with prohibition. It consists, however, of fourteen volumes, only two of which deal with prohibition. The others describe present practices of federal courts, of criminal procedure, of penal institutions,

of police, and paint striking pictures of lawlessness and of the costs of crime. They present a number of factual studies of particular aspects of law enforcement and make practical recommendations for specific changes that would tend to improve both the law and its operating machinery. These studies are a valuable addition to the reliable data which we need as a basis for more intelligent action. They emphasize the enormous need for scientific research in psychology, in psychiatry, in criminology, in anthropology, and in all other fields of study which may yield more reliable information concerning how human nature acts.

If he read these reports, even Horace Mann would be obliged to acknowledge that his predicted results of universal schooling have not yet arrived. This fact would certainly not discourage him or cause him to alter his prediction. Rather it would challenge him to a new crusade to discover what is wrong and to correct it. In this adventure he would get much help both from these reports and from the third significant document of the year, the report of the National Advisory Committee on Federal Relations to Education.

The Report on Federal Relations to Education points out the number and variety of federal responsibilities for education that have been gradually assumed by the Federal Government in its relations with the states, territories and outlying possessions. It shows the lack of any inclusive and consistent policy as to what powers over education should or should not be delegated to the Federal Government. It reveals the tragic failure of federal efforts to administer the education of the Indians and of other indigenous peoples. It traces the trends of federal legislation with regard to education in the states from the adoption of the Constitution to the present time. It points out the steady drift in that legislation toward greater federal control of the purposes and processes of education, and forecasts the consequences of these changes if trends continue further in the same direction. It shows which of these consequences are consistent with the principles of popular sovereignty and the aspirations of the American people. It isolates the critical issues

involved and makes recommendations as to specific changes in legislation and in administration that would tend to strengthen American schools in achieving the social, political, and educational results which the American people desire.

This report recognizes, as does that on Law Enforcement, the need for factual studies and scientific investigations in all lines that involve human behavior. Both reports urge, with great vigor, the necessity of more extended and more factual studies and fundamental research in all areas of the social sciences as the basis for building a social order comparable in intelligence with our material achievement. Both make specific suggestions as to what are the most significant and critical problems for investigation at the present time. These suggestions offer a great opportunity for national service to colleges and universities, which are the fountainheads of research. Many of them are making valuable contributions in this field. But everyone could do more than he is doing, and these reports suggest specific lines of investigation where educational institutions can render most valuable and immediate service.

In addition to this research service, these reports suggest a second type of national service which colleges and universities can render. For everyone who reads these reports, or who even looks thoughtfully around, acquires a profound conviction that, great though our ignorance be, we are not now doing the best we can with what we already have. For example, all history and scientific experiments of psychologists prove conclusively that punishment does not cure crime. Yet we are constantly building bigger and better prisons, passing new prohibitive laws and increasing the power of police. The trouble is not that we don't know any better—we do. But we have not yet found out how to make socially valuable use of what we already know. Hence, we need to discover how to do the best we can with what we have quite as much as we need new knowledge and more reliable information.

The experiences of the National Advisory Committee on Education in formulating their report revealed at least one

important way in which colleges and universities can go to work to render this second great national service. When that committee of fifty-one members first assembled, there were fifty-one different opinions on every important issue involved in the problem. Anything like agreement on any of the major issues seemed well-nigh hopeless.

So the task of clarifying issues and formulating recommended policies was delegated to a sub-committee of fifteen elected by the main committee. That sub-committee held many conferences with groups that had special interests in the issues involved. It organized a research staff and secured the cooperation of many highly expert specialists in various related fields. The materials gathered by the staff from these conferences and from the many collaborating experts were discussed at length by the sub-committee. This gathering and sifting of materials continued for about a year, when the sub-committee began to try to formulate statements of recommended policies which it could unanimously endorse.

The early efforts of the sub-committee to formulate policies that would command support in the baffling welter of conflicting evidence was most discouraging. No matter how hard it tried, through long sessions, it was unable to agree on any formulation of major educational policies. Finally the source of the confusion was discovered. When this was removed the sub-committee quickly reached almost unanimous agreement. The policies thus agreed to by the sub-committee were finally approved by the entire committee by a vote of 45 to 6.

This experience seems to me significant because most current discussions of social problems are infected by the same source of confusion that was so disturbing to the National Advisory Committee on Education. The difficulty lies in the looseness of our terminology. We continually discuss the problems of popular sovereignty in phraseology which by long tradition connotes conceptions of state sovereignty. For example, in the memorandum of progress published by the National Advisory Committee on Education in

July, 1930, the statement of one of the policies which the committee then favored reads: "The Federal Government should give some financial aid to education in the states." In the final report, published in November, 1931, this policy is stated: "The American people are justified in using their federal tax system to give financial aid to education in the states."

Again, in the earlier document occurs the statement, "The Federal Government should render large intellectual assistance to the states in matters of education." The statement of this policy in the final report reads: "The Federal Government shall be adequately empowered to render intellectual assistance to education everywhere throughout the American domain."

The foregoing distinction may seem to many a mere quibble of words, but as one intimately connected with the deliberations of the National Advisory Committee on Education, I want to bear witness that the clarification of this one point was the critical factor that enabled that committee to reach so nearly unanimous a conclusion. For we are all democrats at heart. The instincts of liberty and of self-government are bred in our bones. We know that our governments are agencies which we have ordained and established to help us win freedom. Yet we constantly use the word "government" with the old-world meaning of a super-state with supreme authority to control by its dictates the lives and destinies of the people.

How this confusion of meanings promotes social consequences that are inconsistent with our cherished theories of self-government is illustrated in such striking phenomena as the failure of so large a percentage of our voters to vote and the constantly increasing stream of prohibitive legislation.

Of course, everyone recognizes that our entire social structure is shot through with practices that are glaringly inconsistent with our theories of popular sovereignty. We all know we are not getting what we want. We all do much preaching on the subject. We delight in painting pictures of the beauties of liberty. There is endless ballyhoo about 100

per cent Americanism. But all this does not help an individual worker on his daily job to detect at what specific point and in what specific ways his acts promote the achievement of ordered liberty and where his acts inhibit the result all say we want. If we are ever to learn how to make the best use of what we already have, we must trace the implications of self-government down into the details of the daily task of every citizen. We must give each one some means of determining for himself how and when the social consequences of his actions either do or do not promote the great American experiment in liberty.

Recent experiments made by the office of the Council in cooperation with various federal offices are developing a practical method for meeting this need. By making appropriate analyses and by frequent conference between educators and technical workers, it is possible to write a specification which so clearly defines both the technical requirements and the desired social consequences of each job that an individual worker on that job knows at what points and in what ways his actions foster or inhibit the achievement of truly democratic results. How this works is best shown by a few samples.

As a first sample, consider the County Agricultural Agent of the Department of Agriculture. He is the point of contact between the federal office and the farmer. If he acts the autocrat, he is likely to fail, because the farmers feel the inconsistency between his action and their own instincts of liberty. The specification issued by the Department of Agriculture for the work of the county agent contains thirty-six items covering all the significant actions of his job. A typical item is as follows:

The County Agricultural Agent stimulates leading local farmers and business and professional men to organize a representative community council and supplemental committees which assume responsibility for the policies and for the extension programs.

Since the County Agent knows that his performance will be rated in accordance with this criterion, he does not try to

control the local committees but so conducts himself that the committees assume responsibility for their own activities. He does this not as a measure of sentiment or of democratic theory but because success on the job requires it. The requirements of democracy are thus brought home to him in the details of his daily work so that he consciously strives to achieve social consequences which are consistent with the intrinsic requirements of self-government.

As a second sample, I present a case that is in the initial stage of development. I do this in order to give you a chance to try your hand at the kind of analysis and discussion needed to secure the results desired. The case selected is that of the United States Attorney, the first draft of which has just been compiled by attorneys in the Department of Justice and submitted to us for criticism. This specification contains thirty-five items, each defining one significant activity of the job. The first item on the statement reads as follows:

The United States Attorney represents the Government of the United States in all criminal actions arising within his district, and prosecutes offenders against law in a manner that tends to increase respect for authority and confidence in the public administration of justice.

Most of you will doubtless accept that statement as accurately describing both the action and the desired social consequences. Please note, however, that the phrases, "respect for authority" and "confidence in the administration of justice," are ambiguous. These phrases originated at a time when state sovereignty was the established order. They have come down to us so laden with the implications of state sovereignty that they convey meanings many of which are totally incompatible with the fundamental conceptions of government and of law in a democracy. Respect for law is a result which a sovereign state endeavors to achieve in order to make people willing to obey the authority, often arbitrary, of a sovereign monarch. But popular sovereignty requires that the whole system of government and of law be conceived of, not as a mechanism for making people sub-

servient to duly constituted authority, whether of kings or of majorities, but as instruments created by the people to help them secure ordered liberty.

Therefore, whether this criterion leads the attorney to play the autocrat or the democrat depends on the interpretation which he himself puts on these phrases. We must therefore state the criteria by which his action will be appraised in more unequivocal terms.

As a substitute for the phrase, "increase respect for authority," we have suggested, "give every man his utmost chance." The attorneys tell us that they cannot freely do this because they are limited by the content of the law. The discussion thus started will continue until we find a statement that unequivocally defines an objective of popular sovereignty and yet is attainable within the techniques of the law. What the nature of this statement will be, I cannot predict, but that it will undoubtedly be forthcoming I have no doubt. What do you suggest?

This discussion of the case of the United States Attorney opens up to the colleges and universities a fascinating field for fruitful study in the domains of government and of law. For our experiences with such performances as the Tennessee Anti-Evolution Law and our struggle to prevent other State Legislatures from passing similar legislation must make it clear to everyone that many legislators and the public at large need help in distinguishing between legal and governmental activities that promote and those that inhibit achievement of the kind of democracy we are trying to achieve.

Great as are the opportunities for such critical analyses of social consequences in government and in law, they are even greater in the fields of industry, commerce, and finance. Anyone who reads even part of the vast recent literature on the causes and cures of the present industrial impasse recognizes that the situation has the whole world baffled. And for some reason or other the practical proposals that have been made and even the governmental actions that have been taken leave the public cold and skeptical. No wonder, for these proposals and actions are entirely in terms of com-

modity prices, production curves, profits, price ratios, discount rates, and other gear-wheels and gadgets of the business machine. One looks in vain for any consideration of the specific social consequences of particular business activities. Yet everyone, whether unemployed or millionaire, knows that the present industrial system does not satisfy his heart's desire. Millions are hungry in the midst of plenty.

Discussion of this subject with industrialists convinces me that many of them eagerly want to make industry secure nobler social consequences. But the problem is so complex that they, too, are baffled. They do not know where and how to begin. University and college men can help them discover when and how particular practices of business violate the requirements of democracy. College teachers can learn from them the details of how the business machine actually works. Thus business men may be guided to make business do its bit in building a better social order, and college men may better teach the oncoming generation to carry on toward the achievement of ever nobler social consequences. I know of no more effective way in which our schools can help reduce the costs of crime, as Horace Mann predicted they would, and at the same time promote our great experiment in self-government.

In conclusion, may I remind you that 145 years ago seventy-two competent men spent four hot months together in Philadelphia, striving to design a new political structure that would help men realize their heart's desire to win freedom. They did not then know as much as we know now. There were no precedents to guide them. Yet they did not decline to act for lack of facts and figures. They did the best they could with what they had. They pooled experiences, forecast desired social consequences, and invented appropriate political methods of realizing them in practice. The result was the American Constitution, which Mr. Gladstone called "the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man."

The problems of social organization today are no more insoluble than were the problems of political organization in

1787. Therefore, let us now return to the faith of our fathers. Let us pool our experiences, forecast the social consequences which we all want, and then so reconstruct the details of our social system that they all conspire to help men realize their heart's desire. If we do the best we can with what we already have we can certainly create a social order that reveals an intelligence comparable with our material achievement.

C. R. MANN.

May 6, 1932.

Report of the Committee on Problems and Plans in Education

THE Committee on Problems and Plans in Education reports progress. Progress in an undertaking so large as that with which the Committee is charged can hardly be spectacular. The undertaking is nothing less than a survey of the whole field of education for the purpose of identifying the most fundamental problems relating to the development of human beings, to the special demands of the modern environment, and to institutional methods; and for the further purpose of planning a series of related investigations designed to throw light on these problems. Early in its deliberations the committee adopted a self-denying ordinance. It agreed not to be hasty in asking support for single investigations, but rather to wait until a comparatively complete list of projects could be assembled and their inter-relationships definitely demonstrated.

It is very difficult to be as virtuous as this. The committee has not quite succeeded. Emergencies arise. A very serious one has indeed arisen since the committee was appointed. Expediencies present themselves likewise. Sometimes money seems to be available for a given purpose now that might not be available a little later. The committee has yielded to temptation. It has asked—through the Executive Committee of the American Council—for funds, and it has got some, ahead of the completion of its canvass.

Nevertheless, I think it is fair to say that the difficult objective which the committee placed before itself in the beginning has been held constantly in view. During the past year it has been getting on with the business of exploring, identifying and defining.

Tentatively it has committed itself to the conclusion that some nine fields are of major importance, and that fundamental investigations in them should be outlined and budgeted. Three of them relate primarily to human beings, three to the educational process, and three to organization. The fields are:

1. Unitary traits.
2. The genetic series of steps of intellectual growth.
3. Personnel methods.
4. Procedures of instruction.
5. Materials of instruction.
6. Vocational education.
7. The organization and administration of state educational systems.
8. The relation between social and educational changes.
9. The training and recruiting of teachers and other professional groups.

It will be obvious that the overlook of the committee is as yet only partial. There are likewise great differences in the importance and the extensiveness of the topics just cited. Some of the interrelationships that doubtless exist the committee has yet to discover. In short, its program is still in the unfinished stage.

The committee has also met some reverses, of which the parent organization should be informed. Early in the current academic year it was impressed, as all observant citizens must have been, by the serious plight of certain school systems and institutions. The curtailment of public appropriations and the serious losses of income suffered by private institutions were leading in many instances to ill-considered action tending to destroy or to cripple vital educational enterprises. The question naturally presented itself: Can the necessary and unavoidable retrenchment be made less disastrous? The committee believed that this question is important not alone to the educational profession but also to the public. It believed that educators and influential laymen should face it together. It was further of the opinion that well-considered recommendations in which educators and leaders in other professional activities joined might be a useful guide to institutions and appropriating bodies in the present financial emergency. How could educators and laymen be brought together for this purpose? The sponsorship would have to be exempt from any suspicion of personal interest in the conclusions, or the conclusions would never get a hearing.

The American Council on Education, with its inclusive and varied membership, seemed to the committee to be the one existing organization that most nearly met the essential test of non-partisanship. At the same time its focal position should enable it to enlist outside leaders of public opinion in this common service. The committee believed that the addition to its own membership of various men of affairs influential in American life and well known to the public at large would be a useful first step toward the formulation of such recommendations as the Council might finally wish to bring to the attention of the public. It was persuaded also that it might well spend some of its time outlining a possible program of immediate action looking toward educational reform in the interest both of improvement of the process and of financial saving.

The endeavor to put these views into effect has been unsuccessful thus far. None of the distinguished Americans invited to join the committee's ranks has consented to do so. I do not know whether they were all appalled at the prospect of periodic three-day sessions, or whether they doubted the possibility of assisting localities and institutions by the devices proposed. At any rate the committee is no larger than it was and no less professional in its membership. One of its sessions was given over largely to the consideration of the problems raised by the emergency and the possibility of some helpful recommendations from a central source. The consideration helped the committee's own thinking. There is a reflection of this consideration in the list of fields which the committee is trying to analyze—the list previously presented in this report. Otherwise, the committee is ready to admit that it does not yet see the way to organize forces for action. It has not abandoned the project entirely. But meanwhile it proposed to continue its stated task of trying to show where American education is defective and uncertain and insecure, and what should be done about it.

A year ago I reported the formation of a special committee, under the Committee on Problems and Plans, to study the organization and administration of state educational sys-

tems. The chairman of the committee is the present chairman of the Council. That committee created a precedent, I believe, in its very membership. Three of its members come from the field of education; three are experts in political science who were designated by the Social Science Research Council. For the first time representatives of these overlapping disciplines have met for the formulation of a fundamental piece of research. After many meetings an outline of a study, conceived on entirely new lines, was prepared, and tentative estimates of the cost of the investigation were made. The estimates ran into money—as anyone might have guessed they would. The project was relatively complete in itself. Its bearing on many of the other fields that have engaged the committee's attention is, of course, clear. Nevertheless, it might be considered altogether in isolation, and it might appeal to some agency that devotes its funds to educational inquiries.

Your committee, however, decided to approach the problem of financing the undertaking in a comparatively novel way. It decided to urge the Executive Committee of the Council to try to secure a small fund to pay for an exploratory study in this field—a study which should gather the easily available materials bearing on the principal issues, which should define these issues with greater precision, and which should finally prepare a defensible budget for the whole larger investigation. The Executive Committee has endorsed this procedure and has offered to a number of philanthropic agencies the privilege of supporting the initial step in this undertaking which is of such extraordinary consequence to American educational policy, and now more important than ever. Thus far no agency has appreciated this privilege.

The relatively cheap exploratory study has, however, commended itself, both as an instrument for helping the committee to prepare its outline of the needs of American education and as an opportunity for educational foundations to make sure of the validity of proposed inquiries. The committee has organized several other exploratory committees,

one on educational finance, one on the revision of materials of instruction, one on the genetic series of steps in intellectual growth, and one on unitary differential traits. Out of its own appropriations it has paid the expenses of all but the last. The Carnegie Corporation has made a grant of \$5,000 for the current year for an exploratory study of unitary differential traits by a committee under the direction of Edward L. Thorndike.

The committee believes that the field of vocational education presents some of the most critical problems now before the American people. A particular and separatist philosophy of vocational education has dominated our national thinking and has found expression in educational practice at all levels from the junior high school to the graduate school. That philosophy has been challenged in several previous national emergencies. It is now challenged again. Prevailing schemes of vocational education are already suffering from malnutrition. Obviously current practices cannot be continued. Can the philosophy governing these practices be maintained? Perhaps it is false, and should not be maintained. Perhaps it is sound, and should be maintained at all costs. Let no one doubt that these are great issues in our national life. Beyond the provision of food and shelter and clothing for the population of America, nothing is more essential than that the preparation of its citizens for the various occupations of life should be apt and adequate.

Your committee is convinced that the organization of a new and fundamental study of vocational education, and the prosecution of such a study by competent persons, would represent a contribution to the nation's welfare not likely to be matched in our time. The committee has been engaged for several months in an effort, thus far unsuccessful, to enlist an experienced and trustworthy group for the formulation of such a study. If it finally succeeds in this enterprise, it believes it will have earned its continuance at your hands.

S. P. CAPEN, *Chairman,*
University of Buffalo.

Report of the Committee on Educational Finance

THE Committee on Educational Finance is composed of President Cowling of Carleton College, President Gates of the University of Pennsylvania, Mr. Lloyd Morey, Comptroller of the University of Illinois, President Sproul of the University of California, and Drs. Mann and MacCracken, *ex officio*.

The Committee has held two meetings and has reached agreement on the following points:

1. It is desirable that the American Council on Education inaugurate studies of certain general questions of educational finance.
2. These questions should be questions of long range and permanent policy rather than questions provoked by the present emergency.
3. It is desirable that the activity of the Council in the field of finance should be of a research character and that the Council should not attempt the administration of a service bureau for the purpose of offering specific advice and information to institutions seeking financial support.
4. Problems of educational finance should be considered from the standpoint of a political and educational philosophy which accepts the principle of the utmost chance for every child according to his ability.
5. As a preliminary step to finding an answer to such questions as, "Are the schools and colleges worth all they cost?" it is necessary to secure the consensus of competent judgment as to possible units, terms or criteria by which to evaluate the results of education in terms other than "student hour costs."

In reaching these conclusions the committee assumed that the National School Finance Survey, under the direction of Dr. Paul R. Mort, would be carried through as originally proposed, and that the special committee of the Department of Superintendence on School Costs, under the chairman-

ship of Superintendent Weglein, would deal with the present financial emergency as it relates to the public school system.

Since the last meeting of the committee the report of Superintendent Weglein's committee has been adopted by the Department of Superintendence, and Congress has refused funds for a continuance of the National School Finance Survey. Senator King, in discussing the appropriation for a study of the sources and apportionment of school revenues and their expenditure, twice made the statement that "if they (the educators) would give me a stenographer so that I could write to the superintendents of education of all the states of the Union, I could furnish them all of the information called for by this \$350,000 appropriation in a month, at virtually no cost. . . . This was merely a scheme to furnish employment to a number of alleged experts in the Bureau of Education."

The Director of the American Council, on reading the statement of the Senator from Utah, wrote the Senator making a formal offer to supply the stenographer at the expense of the Council, but has received to date no reply from the Senator.

Appropriations for the Office of Education have been cut 26 per cent below the budget proposal. The result of this is to give the Office of Education 37 per cent less for the year 1932-33 than for the year 1931-32.

The proposal to reduce federal grants for vocational education under the fifty-fifty plan was defeated in the House. The debate on this question was not such as to increase our estimate of the value of our present representative legislative system.

It is evident that there is no well-reasoned, generally understood philosophy of educational finance in the United States, and that there is very great divergence of opinion on the subject between educational professional circles and the man on the street. When Senator Copeland of New York attempted a feeble defense in the Senate of the activities of the Office of Education, no second Senator rose vigorously to the support of education. Education as an element of

national policy is today without a champion in the Senate, nor is there any forum where the stage is set for debates which result in a general informed public opinion on this important question.

The people of the United States have been paying thirteen billion dollars annually in taxes, and voluntarily giving two and a half billion either in gifts or bequests to charity, including education and religion. The present disposition to appropriate an increased share of surplus wealth for current expenses of the Federal Government will withdraw support from voluntary enterprises and tend to transfer a larger share of the burden to taxation. The need for a strong committee of the Council on educational finance is much greater today than it was when it was created last fall. Whether the committee will be able to function effectively will depend on whether it can secure funds for the employment of at least one full-time expert.

Professor E. C. Moore of Harvard, summing up the whole business of the American school says: "The school can do only one thing. It can offer a carefully selected environment in which the learner can use his own mind in socially profitable ways. Subjects of study are only a series of challenges to think out the social experience which they formulate." We who are still students in the American school system, for we count the Council a part of that system, though approaching the end of the course, feel the challenge, of thinking out the social experience of school finance as it has developed the last six months, and trust that many others will feel the same challenge.

A number of projects for the assistance of colleges and universities in the present emergency having been proposed, it seemed advisable that the Council collect first hand information as to the actual financial condition of its institutional members. Accordingly a questionnaire was sent out in March to 250 institutions, members of the Council, and replies were received prior to April 10th from 168 of the 250, or slightly more than two-thirds. Of this number 115 were

privately controlled institutions and 53 were tax-supported institutions.

As the Council agreed to hold the individual returns confidential, only a general summary can be presented here.

The outstanding and encouraging fact of the inquiry is that 137 of the 168 institutions expect to balance their budget for the year 1932-33. Of the remaining 31, only 17 knew definitely that they would not be able to balance the budget. The prospective deficiency for these 17 is given at \$677,500.

The second encouraging fact was that only 35 of the 168 have already reduced salaries. Of this number 9 will make a further cut in salaries for 1932-33 beyond the 1931-32 cut, and 17 institutions additional, which did not reduce salaries in 1931-32, will reduce salaries in 1932-33, making a total of 52 institutions, or about one-third, which are reducing salaries.

Sixty-six of the institutions, however, or 40 per cent, will reduce the number of their staff in 1932-33 as compared with 1931-32.

The returns indicate that the combined income of the 168 institutions will be about nine million dollars less in 1932-33 than in 1930-31.

In the case of income from investments, the item is negligible, as it relates to tax-supported institutions. In the case of privately controlled institutions, however, 73 institutions reported an average reduction in income from investments of \$16,850. Of this number 36 foresee a further reduction in income for the year 1932-33 of approximately \$26,000 for each institution, while 6 institutions which suffered no loss in income in 1931-32 foresee an average reduction of \$77,000 for each institution for 1932-33 as compared to 1931-32.

In the matter of income from government sources, 17 reported no change for 1931-32 as compared with 1930-31, and 12 of these expect no change in 1932-33 as compared with 1931-32. Twenty-seven of the tax supported institutions—almost exactly one-half of this group—reported a

decrease in income from government sources for the year 1931-32 of \$141,000 on the average per institution. Against this, however, three institutions reported an average increase of income of \$90,000 per institution.

In the matter of student fees, there is great discrepancy in the report. In privately controlled institutions, 19 report no change, 22 report increased receipts averaging \$32,000 per institution, while 63 report reduction in student fees averaging \$22,000 per institution. Of the 49 which hazard an estimate for the year 1932-33, 17 anticipate no change, 29 expect that 1932-33 will fall off as much as compared with 1931-32 as 1931-32 fell off in comparison with 1930-31, and only 3 venture to predict an increase in receipts from student fees. In the case of approximately two-thirds of the privately controlled institutions reporting, each institution will have an average of \$67,000 less income from investments and student fees in 1932-33 than they had in 1930-31.

In the matter of indebtedness, 45 of the privately controlled institutions report no change in funded debt and 9 others report no change in current debt. Three of the privately controlled institutions have increased both their funded and current indebtedness during the year; 10 have increased their funded indebtedness but 4 of these have decreased their current indebtedness, and 31 others have increased their current indebtedness. Four institutions have reduced both their funded and their current indebtedness, 9 have reduced their funded indebtedness, and 8 have reduced their current indebtedness without increasing their funded indebtedness. Fifty-nine privately controlled institutions report a change in indebtedness showing a total net increase incurred between the close of the last fiscal year and March 1, 1932, of \$2,905,000, an average of almost \$50,000 per institution. It is only fair to state, however, that if the increase of indebtedness of the four institutions which have incurred the greatest indebtedness were omitted, the increase would be reduced 50 per cent. In other words, 4 institutions have increased their indebtedness \$1,450,000 and the other

55 institutions together have increased their indebtedness a like amount.

In the matter of scholarship aid, of the privately controlled institutions 32 report no increase, and of the tax-supported institutions, 18 report no increase. Three private and 2 tax-supported institutions report a decrease in student aid. Seventy-seven private institutions report an average increase of \$11,800, and 26 tax-supported institutions report an average increase of \$5,760. The 108 institutions reporting show a net increase in student aid of a little over \$1,030,000 for the current year.

While the number of institutions reporting is not quite one-third of the accredited institutions, and while being limited to institutions which are members of the Council, the report deals only with the stronger half of the institutions, the result of the questionnaire may be taken as fairly representative of the present financial condition of the stronger half. All the states are represented in the return except five, namely, Delaware, Idaho, New Mexico, Nevada, and North Dakota. The institutions are divided among the regional associations as follows: Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, 46; Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, 35; New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 21; North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 54; Northwest Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 5; Association of American Universities, 7. Twenty-five of the more important state universities sent returns.

Taking the results of the questionnaire and viewing them in the light of general conditions, it would seem that the year 1932-33 is likely to increase the difficulties of the tax-supported institutions in greater degree than it will increase the difficulties of the privately controlled institutions, except in the matter of current gifts. The greatly increased income taxes and estate taxes will tend, as has already been noted, to destroy the sources of voluntary support, appropriating, as they do, a large part of the surplus wealth to the current

expense of government. Tax-supported institutions, with the drying up of revenue from taxation, will doubtless resort more generally than is now the case to special fees for special services. If this practice becomes at all prevalent, it will aid not only the state institution but indirectly the institution under private control, by enabling the latter to collect a larger share of the cost of education from the student. On the other hand, a reduction in wages will make it increasingly difficult for the average man to pay the cost of his children's higher education and will increase the demand for scholarships, loans, and special aid. The failure of college and professional school graduates to find jobs will have a tendency to diminish the present general demand for higher education. The reduction in the number of teaching positions will leave many prospective teachers unemployed and have a tendency to reduce the scale of salaries, at least in the lower ranks. Some of the weaker colleges will be forced to become junior colleges, some will be forced to consolidate with other institutions, and a few will be forced to close. The prudent administrator who practices every economy, postpones capital expenditures, avoids the broad and easy road of increased indebtedness, will doubtless ride out the storm with safety and find his institution unified and strengthened by the enforced retrenchments, and ready for the new day of promise which will eventually follow the storm.

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State Policies with Reference to Teacher Preparation

IN EXAMINING the educational journals of the day, one rarely fails to find a periodical without some reference to or discussion of the problem of unemployment among teachers. The improvement of the situation disclosed creates an educational issue of first importance. The fact that there has been retrenchment by boards of education accounts in small measure for the total number of those who are today without positions. The evidence is compelling, however, that our teacher preparation institutions, both public and private, have been graduating potential teachers without a factual and measured regard for the number and kinds of educational opportunities available for their graduates.

During the past decade institutional facilities have been expanding and enrollments increasing out of all proportion to the demands of differentiated types of service. A recent report from the Office of Education states that between 1920 and 1928 the number of public school teaching positions increased 12 per cent in the elementary field, and 87 per cent in the high schools, whereas the number of students in training increased approximately 100 per cent in the same period of time.

Data compiled as late as January, 1932, at the University of Minnesota and gathered from 166 four-year institutions regarding the placement of the 1931 graduates show that the average per cents placed are as follows:

	<i>Colleges</i>	<i>Placed</i>
Two-year elementary courses.....	23	61%
Four-year elementary courses.....	35	68%
High school academic.....	51	42%
Total for all graduate students.....		69%

From six state teachers colleges and normal schools in an industrial area less than 60 per cent of the graduates of the class of 1931 have been thus far placed. This means financial and professional loss to both the state and the teacher.

So the evidence could be multiplied which would clearly demonstrate that all over the country careful planning, which would include as one item the restriction of enrollments in relation to the development of an inclusive teacher preparation policy, does not yet characterize our state educational departments. This condition is as true in relation to the institutions under immediate influence and control of the department as for those institutions which are under independent control, but rendering service in the same field.

My interest at this time is not to attempt to analyze an economic situation as it affects the individual teacher, important as that inquiry may be. Rather, I am interested to stress what I believe to be an obligation resting upon central educational boards of control whatever be their particular titles, to provide for state-wide planning and control programs. These programs would include as a major consideration the recruiting, up-grading, the re-education and the placement of the teaching and supervisory staff in relation to the factual demands for all types of educational service at all levels.

In emphasizing the responsibilities of state departments of education in the matter under discussion I do not wish to be regarded as an advocate of the centralization of administrative functions in the field of public education, except in so far as it is an effective means to wholly desirable ends. I find it impossible, however, to conceive of a well-coordinated and well-unified state program of teacher preparation without strong, independent, and professionally efficient leadership in the state central office of education. That office may exist as some form of inclusive state university organization, or as an executive department of the state government. Given such leadership, almost any one of our states will in due time be likely to develop a set of teacher training policies well suited to its particular needs. For a hypothetical state as an ideal, if and when created, I venture to suggest that these policies are likely to be most successfully developed in the manner about to be indicated. With modifications

in detail only, they will then serve equally well in almost any other state.

Among the principal administrative divisions of a well-organized state department of education, the bureau of teacher preparation occupies a position of commanding importance. This bureau is in charge of a director who is responsible, under the chief educational executive of the state, for the detailed development of state-wide policies of teacher preparation and re-education and for the general supervision and coordination of the teacher training efforts of all the institutions in the state which are authorized agencies for the professional education of teachers. He is in charge of the issuance of all forms of certification. He is also responsible for the evaluation of all academic credentials and for the management of a teacher placement service. He reports his recommendations on policy to the state commissioner of education or chief executive educational officer who, in turn, makes recommendations to the state board of education or to the regents or other governing body in the case of an inclusive state university organization. These recommendations when approved by said board have the force of law. In accordance therewith, the director, after consultation with executive officers of state teachers colleges and with other public school officers concerned, and in cooperation with privately endowed institutions, sets up programs intended to carry such policies into effect. In general his functions are to standardize and stabilize the teacher training services, to up-grade the minimum requirements for certification as rapidly as conditions may warrant, and to assist in bringing available candidates to the attention of local school officers in any part of the state who are in need of their services.

In carrying out these functions the bureau of teacher preparation with assistance from the division of research is continuously engaged in assembling such statistical data as may have bearing upon desirable revisions of policy and corresponding modifications of program.

Studies are made anew each year of the number of new

teachers needed in each of the different kinds of school positions; for example: teachers in kindergarten, in grades 1 to 3 inclusive, in grades 4 to 6 inclusive, in grades 7 and 8, in junior and senior high schools; and special teachers of every distinctive type; also principals of elementary schools, of junior high schools and of senior high schools and general and special supervisors. These studies are made to ascertain the increase or decrease in the number of new teachers actually needed from year to year in each type of position for the state as a whole and for each administrative unit. Complete information is also gathered concerning the supply available in each classification from sources within the state and concerning the academic and professional preparation of all educational employees of the state.

With definite and dependable information concerning the state's needs and the sources from which the supply has been or may be recruited, the bureau is in a position to measure the one against the other and to adjust certification standards and policies of admission to and of selection within teacher preparing institutions accordingly.

Definite information concerning actual demand, available supply and levels of training makes it possible for the bureau: (1) To determine whether the state's teacher preparing institutions, individually and collectively, are maintaining the proper ratios in the number enrolled in each of the several curricula offered or are piling up an unnecessary surplus in one branch of the service, for example, high school teachers, while there is an actual shortage of persons trained for some other branch of the service, for example, elementary school teachers. (2) To determine whether new and additional institutions or enlargements of existing institutions are imperatively called for to meet the legitimate needs of the state for new and better educated teachers. (3) To determine and to seek to remove unnecessary duplication and overlapping of services rendered between public and private institutions.

As the potential supply of teachers increases without a corresponding demand, all high school training classes and county normal schools can and should be abandoned as

rapidly as possible and all certification based on short-term preparation confined to cases that are distinctly of the emergency type and of limited validity. The requirements for admission to standard normal schools and teachers colleges can be raised and selection within the school refined. In due time the minimum requirement for certification can be upgraded over wider areas from two to three and ultimately to four years of post-high school education of an acceptable sort.

The state department of education, however set up, must have the legal authority to inspect the equipment and staff of all private as well as all public teacher preparing institutions seeking to have their curricula accredited for certification purposes, and no institution should be accredited as a teacher training institution unless it has a satisfactory lay-out of laboratory schools for observation, participation, apprentice-teaching and experimental teaching easily accessible for the purpose intended, adequately staffed and equipped and under the full control of the teachers college for the purposes indicated. Such inspection and recommended accreditation are legitimate functions of the bureau of teacher preparation and its director.

The progressive revision of the curricula of the teacher preparing institutions of the state should be a work of collaboration in which committees, organized on an inter-institutional basis, work in cooperation with and under the general direction of the head of the bureau of teacher preparation. These curricula must be thoroughly professionalized; that is to say, the subject matter and activities included must be taught with a view to the use to which they are to be put in the schools, and not merely with a view to the general education of the teachers who pursue them. Sound general education, however, together with training in professional skills are both legitimate functions of our teachers colleges.

Furthermore, the curricula should for the elementary schools be differentiated so as to provide for kindergarten and primary positions as well as for the upper elementary grades. Equally obvious is the necessity for specific prepara-

tion for the junior high schools and senior high school grades.

In the curricula of the teachers college or normal school the material of the subject-matter courses, professionalized and others, should include instructional material which appears in the suggested or prescribed elementary or secondary schools of the state. These latter courses, as for example in arithmetic, should be prepared jointly by representatives from the field, and from the teacher preparing institution and under the general supervision of the director of the bureau of teacher preparation. Only in this way can the professionalized subject-matter courses be so organized and administered as to avoid gaps between the pre-service and the in-service training of teachers.

For the effective functioning of the pre-service preparation in teachers colleges and normal schools and the in-service growth of teachers, the courses of study in the laboratory schools should exemplify for the state the practicability of the individual courses in the various subjects. In other words, teachers, principals and superintendents have a right to expect that the state courses of study will be given through trial in the laboratory schools. Visits to these schools for observation and for conference should be a common practice.

The state has an obligation to provide experimental classes or schools wherein there may be developed new adaptations of material to differing pupil needs and new methods of teaching as well as to provide for the discovery of pertinent facts in relation to the processes of learning and of teaching.

Furthermore, such classes or special schools should afford an opportunity for trying out methods that may have been developed in the other schools of the state.

Through the publication of results of experimental work, through visitation, and by other means of publicity, the experimental schools will be an agency for raising the general level of teaching throughout the state.

In order that all teacher preparing institutions may work cooperatively and effectively in a common cause, the bureau of teacher preparation should provide for periodic conferences to be attended by the faculties of all normal schools and

teachers colleges and other institutions preparing teachers. Teachers in laboratory schools are, of course, included. One of the purposes of these conferences would be to discuss the reports of committees which have been at work on various phases of the problems that have arisen in the classroom and in administration. It is only through such conferences that the professional morale of a state may be created and maintained.

The right and obligation of the state to select those whom it will train for later service in its schools must be apparent to all. This selection is a very difficult task and calls for the full cooperation of public school officials with the bureau of teacher preparation and with the individual teachers colleges and normal schools. In order that there may be a full understanding of all factors involved, conferences of teacher training faculties may well be held from time to time with school superintendents, high school principals, vocational guidance directors, and with members of boards of education, to discuss the difficult problems related to the program of selective admission to the normal schools and teachers colleges and to devise ways and means for making improvements in the processes of such selection. It should be remembered that such selection may occur either at the time of entrance or in the progress of the course, particularly when a junior college is a unit of the teachers college organization.

The state has an obligation at least to provide information to employing boards as to available candidates for educational positions both for beginners and for teachers of experience. Hence the placement office should be attached to the teacher preparation bureau. Such an office will function most effectively as a bureau of information rather than as an agency for the actual placing of teachers. Employment should always be regarded as a responsibility of local boards of education.

The normal schools and teachers colleges are henceforth to have an increasingly important part to play in the in-service education of teachers. The faculty of the teacher preparing institution must work out, in conference with

superintendents, definite techniques of supervision for novice teachers so that hereafter the mere fact of employment may carry with it some assurance of continued professional growth. And in as far as it is feasible, all teachers in service in every part of the state must have the opportunity to go forward with advanced study without giving up their positions or their income to do so.

With the gradual stabilization of that part of the profession found in the public school system through increasing length of tenure and with the growing tendency on the part of teachers to continue some form of systematic study either voluntarily or by requirement, teachers college faculties must be prepared to offer in addition to courses cultural in character, a wider range of practical courses for teachers already in service. In this program of systematic courses ample opportunity must be given to participate in teaching clinics on the campus and as frequently as possible at other points as well. In order that individual members of teachers college faculties may prepare themselves to render this service acceptable they must be given ample opportunity for advanced study and for visits to public school classrooms to acquaint themselves with the best of current educational practice in elementary and secondary schools and to learn to meet public school teachers and officers on the level of common experience.

In what has been said and inferred thus far in relation to state control of teacher preparation, I would, under no circumstances, be understood as denying the president and faculty of the individual teachers college any part of the autonomy which is necessary to the integrity of institutional service. I would regard the state office as the only agency which is in a position successfully to unify the teacher training institutions of the whole state and effectively to identify their interests with those of the public school system at large. I would exalt the teacher training service by freeing it from the limitations which have in many places been imposed upon it by the lack of coordinating leadership.

Efficient individual teachers colleges and normal schools

will not alone suffice. We need in each state a well-coordinated and integrated system of professional schools for teachers. In a report recently issued by the Eastern States Association of Professional Schools for Teachers the president says:

"An adequate state program for the professional education of teachers is one which so effectively coordinates the services of the several individual teacher preparing institutions and agencies as to make of them collectively a system in fact and not merely in name; in a word, so completely unifies teacher preparing effort in every part of the state system that each individual institution actually supplements the services of all other institutions—avoiding unnecessary duplication and wasteful competition."

Such a system of teacher preparation in each of our states is "a consummation devoutly to be wished." Some states are already on the high road toward its realization. Out of the present situation may come accelerated programs.

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Who and What Determine the Educational Policies of the Theological Schools?

THE scope of theological education has widened in recent years. To their original purpose of training men for the preaching ministry and pastoral service many theological seminaries have added training for other types of Christian vocation, such as foreign missionary service, religious education, community service through religious agencies, and religious leadership in colleges and universities. To the original subjects of Old and New Testaments, church history, systematic theology, and practical theology, they have added newer fields of study, such as comparative religion, Christian missions, the psychology of religion, mental hygiene, Christian ethics, Christian sociology, and religious education. In many cases provisions for other vocational groups and new fields of study have simply been added to the existing resources of the seminary without a fundamental reconsideration of their bearing upon the curriculum as a whole. In the last decade, however, partly because curriculum revision has been a feature of the academic climate generally and partly because of the pressure of student interest in the newer fields, a number of seminaries have revised their curricula.

Most of the leading seminaries of the country are members of the Conference of Theological Seminaries and Colleges in the United States and Canada which was organized in 1918. Under the joint auspices of the Conference and the Institute of Social and Religious Research, a comprehensive Study of Theological Education has been in progress for the past three years, the report of which, prepared by Professor Mark A. May, Director of the Study, and Professor William Adams Brown, representing the Conference, will be published within the year.

It is difficult to make out an exact list of institutions of

theological education, for these institutions are of widely different sorts, from theological seminaries which are graduate professional schools in the full sense of the term, offering a three or four-year course of study beyond college graduation, down through theological colleges which offer an undergraduate professional course, to Bible schools which offer various courses not leading to a degree. The Study of Theological Education has taken account of 226 theological institutions, of which 200 are in the United States. Of the entire list, 142 may properly be classified as theological seminaries which aim, at least, to be graduate professional schools, 18 are of college grade, and the remaining 56 are of more uncertain type.

Two years ago the Conference appointed a Committee on the Aims and Objectives of Theological Education and a Committee on the Curriculum. These have found it advisable to work together, and the reports which they are sending to the constituent seminaries are stimulating active discussion and in many institutions self-examination on the part of the faculties. I quote from the last report of these committees a statement concerning the aims of theological education which expresses fairly general agreement:

The aim of the seminary as an educational institution must be determined by: (a) the purpose of the church for which it is to train ministers; and (b) by the nature of the ministry they are to render.

The Christian Church is the organized fellowship which has for its special function the cultivation of the religious life through the worship of God as revealed through Jesus Christ and the releasing and directing of energies which are to bear fruit not only in the development of Christian character in individuals but in the creation of a Christian society.

It is the function of the Christian ministry, in its varying forms: (a) through preaching and teaching to increase men's knowledge and experience of God, and to summon them to personal consecration to Jesus Christ and His Gospel; (b) to lead them in their worship; (c) to be the counsellors of individual men and women in their personal duties and difficulties; and (d) to be the leaders of the Christian Church in its educational, social, and missionary activities.

It is the function of the seminary to furnish its students

with such knowledge and skill as will fit them to discharge effectively this four-fold function.

At no point of the Church's interest in education are the lines of denominational division more sharply drawn than with respect to theological education. Each denomination tends in training men for future service within its own organization to emphasize strongly the distinctive beliefs and practices which separate it from other denominations. Each maintains one or more institutions for the training of ministers within its own fellowship, and undertakes to control these institutions to that end. Of the 142 theological institutions undertaking graduate professional work, 130 are conducted under the auspices of a denomination, and only 12 are in no way under denominational control.

Leaving out of consideration for the moment the 12 non-denominational seminaries, let us inquire how the denominations exert control over the seminaries which are avowedly responsible to them. This control is exerted through four major channels: (a) through denominational control of the ordination and placement of ministers; (b) through various forms of denominational control of the organization and administration of the seminaries; (c) through the selection and watch-care of students; (d) through the financial subsidy of students.

1. *Denominational Control through the Ordination and Placement of Ministers.* The ordination and placement of ministers remain in the hands of the churches. Graduation from a theological seminary does not assure either ordination to the Christian ministry or placement in service. The graduate of the seminary must submit, as must any other man, to whatever examination the practice of his denomination requires, and receives ordination only by vote of the church or council or board which bears this responsibility. His subsequent placement in a post of service depends upon the degree to which his convictions and attainments, character and personality are pleasing to the churches or to denominational authorities. This constitutes a natural and exceedingly effective means of control which the denomina-

tions exert over the theological seminaries. By refusing to ordain or to employ its graduates, the denominations could readily terminate the usefulness of any seminary.

The most serious limitation upon theological education and the greatest defect in the life of the churches is the constant influx, through denominational channels, of untrained men who are, nevertheless, ordained to the Christian ministry. The 1926 census shows that of the 72,497 ministers reported by eighteen leading Protestant denominations, not including the Negro churches, 40.6 per cent had neither a college nor a seminary education, 15.2 per cent had a college education only, 10.7 per cent seminary training only, and only 33.5 per cent are classified as both college and seminary graduates.

The denominations differ widely in this respect. Four denominations, the Evangelical Synod of North America, the United Lutheran Church, the Reformed Church in the U. S., and the Augustana Lutheran Synod, have 90 per cent or more of trained ministers. In four other denominations—the Presbyterian U. S. A., Presbyterian U. S., Protestant Episcopal, and Congregational—the proportion varies from 67 to 82 per cent. In seven denominations less than 34 per cent of the ministers are graduates of theological seminaries. These denominations are: Methodist Episcopal, Disciples of Christ, Southern Baptist, United Brethren, Southern Methodist, Evangelical, and Brethren in Christ.

There is an over-supply of men who have been ordained to the Christian ministry, just as there is an over-supply of men for each of the professions. It has been estimated that out of a total of nearly 200,000 ordained Protestant ministers, about 50,000 are not holding full-time positions in the active service of the Protestant churches. This does not mean, however, that there is an over-supply of properly trained men. The excess is being constantly fed by the infiltration of untrained men who succeed in securing ordination through denominational channels and are thereafter by Christian courtesy afforded recognition as ministers and in many cases even succeed in transferring from the denomination whose

lax standards admitted them to the fellowship of another denomination which attempts to maintain higher standards.

The pressure of these facts upon the theological seminaries is strong though indirect. The seminaries of one denomination, for example, which are doing exceedingly effective work upon a graduate level, find themselves hampered by the necessity, as a concession to public opinion within their denomination, of admitting non-college graduates whose presence is rendered no less of a drag upon the work of the institutions by the supposedly ameliorative practice of labelling them special students.

2. Denominational Control of the Organization and Administration of the Seminaries.—The denominational control of the organization and administration of the seminaries is usually indirect, being exercised through boards of trustees or directors which have legal responsibility and direct control of the policies of the institutions. In most cases the members of the board are either elected by denominational authorities or are elected by the board itself upon recommendation of the denominational authorities. Often the denomination acts directly upon the election of the president or dean, the election of members of the faculty, and in some cases even upon salary schedules. Some institutions are governed by two boards, one of which handles the business and legal affairs of the school, while the other exercises denominational oversight. Committees of so-called "visitors" representing and reporting to a denominational body, and sustaining an advisory position to the boards of trustees, are common. In general, the members of the board of trustees must be chosen from the active membership of the controlling denomination. Only seven of the denominational seminaries studied have any members of other denominations on their boards. A number of seminaries require that a pledge or affirmation be made by each member of the board, upon assuming his duties, and in most cases these pledges are concerned with denominational loyalty. More than one-half of the aggregate members of the boards of denominational seminaries are ministers.

As a general rule, denominational seminaries require that members of their faculties be members in good standing of the controlling denomination; and more than one-half of these seminaries specify that faculty members must in their teaching be faithful and loyal to the doctrines of the religious group under whose auspices the school is conducted. A pledge or affirmation to this effect is required by 40 per cent of the seminaries studied, including both denominational and non-denominational institutions.

Let it be stated at once, however, that the faculties of the seminaries have a large measure of freedom to determine the pattern of the curriculum, the content of particular courses, and the methods of teaching—probably as large freedom as any other academic group. In 42 per cent of the seminaries the word of the faculty is final on the determination of the curriculum. What would happen, if a faculty were to make changes so radical as to contradict the major policies of the board or subvert the doctrines of the denomination, can only be conjectured—though, perhaps, foreshadowed by what happened to Rector Cutler and his colleagues of the Yale College faculty in the eighteenth century when they became converted from Congregationalism to the Church of England. One gets the impression, on the basis of replies from the faculties of sixty seminaries which were intensively studied, that theological teachers cannot complain of restriction of academic freedom, not only to conduct their classes as they will, but even to issue statements to the press and to engage in local politics.

Direct financial control of their seminaries by the denominations does not loom large in the total picture. In the year 1928-29, 54 per cent of the income of the seminaries studied was interest on general endowment funds and 6 per cent interest on designated funds. Gifts from individuals to current expenses amounted to but 10 per cent, and gifts from churches and church boards to less than 5 per cent. Whatever financial control the denomination exercises over its seminaries is usually indirect, through denominational control of the membership of the boards of trustees.

3. *Denominational Control by the Selection and "Watch-care" of Students.*—The Study of Theological Education indicates that around 75 per cent of their students come to the theological seminaries from denominational colleges rather than from state or independent institutions. The recruiting of young men for the ministry is commonly recognized as a major interest of the Church, and most denominational boards or departments of education carry on an extensive program of recruiting activities. One denominational board, for example, visits each of its colleges annually "to bring the appeal and challenge for life service from the Christian standpoint to the entire student body; to focus attention upon the ministry as a vocation; to arouse conviction upon the subject and to secure commitment to the ministry; to strengthen the conviction of those already committed to the ministry." Another denomination seeks more definitely to make presentation of the work of the ministry a part of a comprehensive program of vocational counselling from the Christian point of view. Some of the denominations reach back into the high school age and make recruiting for the ministry a feature of their program for the young people's society in the local church. Some denominations exercise supervision or "watch-care" over the students who are in training for their ministry as they progress from freshman year in college to seminary graduation. On the whole the interest of the churches in recruiting and caring for candidates for their ministry is effectively directed; the principal limitation lies in the fact that too often little or no wisdom is exercised in the selection of those who should properly be encouraged to enter the ministry. Too commonly the attitude toward young men who volunteer for the ministry is that of rejoicing as over the reclaiming of a sinner, without sufficient inquiry as to whether this particular candidate is really qualified to receive theological training and in the end to render effective service as a minister. Church folk are hesitant to quench ministerial aspirations.

4. *Denominational Control by the Subsidy of Students.*—The most baffling problem of theological education is that of the

economic support of students. Most theological students come from families rich in children but poor in material wealth, and have earned their way through college in whole or in part. All these students, whether from homes of poverty or of plenty, have reached the age of self-support. They have not had opportunity to acquire much capital. They hesitate to borrow funds to defray the cost of their theological education, because they are entering a profession which is poorly paid and regarded by public opinion as removed from the deliberate seeking of financial preferment, material awards, and side lines to profit. Provision is made for the support of theological students partly through remunerative part-time employment during the period of study, partly by subsidies, and partly by loans.

Seventy-five per cent of the theological students from whom personnel data were secured are engaged upon part-time remunerative employment throughout the academic year. The unmarried students devote an average of sixteen hours a week to this outside work, and married students yet more. This work is only in part of educational value, when men secure posts as parish ministers, directors of religious education, leaders of boys' clubs, Sunday school teachers, and the like.

Loans are available both from the funds of the seminaries and from the funds of the denominations, but students do not avail themselves of these except as a last resort. Direct subsidies are afforded to theological students in a proportion greater, perhaps, than to students in training for any other profession save for the Army and the Navy. Most seminaries make no charge for tuition or for rental of rooms in their dormitories and keep other charges, such as board, at a minimum figure. In addition to the subsidies involved in this policy, theological students are given pecuniary aid through scholarships, fellowships and monetary grants, both from the seminaries and various denominational and non-denominational agencies. Eliminating all loans, the data gathered by the Study show that out of a total enrollment of 5,551 students in 48 seminaries, in 1928-29, 3,020

students received grants amounting to a total of \$507,503. The average grant was \$168.

While the major part of student aid is furnished by the seminaries, denominational assistance and a measure of denominational control appear at each point. Remunerative part-time employment in the churches in the general vicinity of the seminary is made possible through denominational officials, and loans and subsidies are made to the students directly from denominational boards. Practically all denominational boards have the stated policy of granting aid to students who will attend the denominational seminary but refusing financial aid to students who attend non-denominational seminaries.

The non-denominational seminaries are free of denominational control in organization and administration, but they are affected by denominational policies with respect to the ordination and placement of ministers and the selection and subsidizing of theological students. These seminaries seek to serve the churches generally and usually enroll in their student bodies young men from twenty to thirty different denominations. Some of the stronger seminaries are organic parts of a university, constituting its professional school of training for the Christian ministry on a parity with its professional schools of law and medicine. Other strong seminaries situated in the neighborhood of universities have entered into affiliation with them, and in some cases an exchange of credits is provided for. The number of courses thus thrown open to the seminary students is increased, and a stimulating contact with the life of the larger institution is secured; while the seminary, in its turn, is able to contribute a valuable element to the university's program. Under these conditions the seminary is free to develop its curriculum and educational policies as may seem best to its faculty.

There are many encouraging facts in the present situation. The trend, even among denominational seminaries, is to provide training for the Christian ministry generally rather than to confine attention solely to students of the supporting

group. The scholarship of many members of theological seminaries is recognized generally, moreover, rather than within the bounds merely of their own denomination. This has always been true of certain teachers of the Biblical languages and literature and church history. It is true now as well of many of the men who are developing the newer subjects of the seminary curriculum. Many professors of missions, of religious education, and of social service are recognized as authorities in their fields quite without regard to their particular denominational affiliation.

Another fact, associated with this, is the migration of students. The European custom whereby a student attends not one, but several universities, seeking the courses and the teachers of his choice, has never become rooted in American college and university life. The nearest approach to this custom is to be found in the theological seminaries today. Each year a certain number of theological students migrate from seminary to seminary in quest of work in special fields or with particular men.

A number of seminaries have made thorough revisions of their curriculum within the last few years, some have such revisions now in process, and other revisions will doubtless be stimulated by the forthcoming report of the Study of Theological Education. Features of many of these revisions are: the abolition of the old departmental divisions in the interest of a more coherent, intelligible curricular pattern; the effort to bring the curriculum closer to everyday living and to help students to see more clearly the relation which the studies of the seminary sustain to the problems of the vocation which they plan to enter; the encouragement of student initiative and the provision of ampler opportunity for specialized and intensive work; abolition of the old system of academic bookkeeping in favor of more comprehensive tests, better student counselling and a closer approximation to tutorial methods; integration of the students' field work into the curriculum as clinical practice and the institution of methods of supervision which seek to direct this work to the full educational advantage of the students;

lengthening the theological course to four years instead of three in the case of men engaged upon field work of a major character; the frank recognition of the principle of experimentation in curriculum building; and the institution by a number of the seminaries of processes of selection among candidates for admission and limitation of enrollment. In all these matters the faculties of the seminaries have acted as freely as the faculties of any other professional or non-professional schools. The control of the educational policies of the seminaries is largely in their own hands, notwithstanding the measures of denominational control which I have described. It is noteworthy that the chairman of the Conference's Committee on Curriculum and the leader in the movement toward curriculum revision and better teaching methods is dean of a denominational seminary belonging to a church group of generally conservative tradition.

We must not fail, moreover, to take into account the tremendous influence which the faculties of the theological seminaries have exercised and now exert upon the policies of the several denominations. The relation of the seminaries and the denominations is organic. The opportunity of the seminaries is in part determined by the life of the denominations they serve; but the trend of thought and life within the denominations, in turn, is in part determined by the teaching of the seminaries. Theological education stands today at a cross-roads, as does Christianity itself. But we are not dismayed; we face the future with confidence and hope.

LUTHER A. WEIGLE,
Yale University.

Control of Medical Education

WITHIN the last thirty years we have watched in this country the progress of medical education as it passed from the commercial medical school stage to that of the modern university school of today. At the same time we have seen the transformation made in medical education by the introduction of the laboratory into the medical school, and of the hospital, into medical education. The process of bringing in the laboratory has gone along with a complete change in the control of the medical school.

The laboratory was expensive. It was no longer possible for a group of men interested in medicine to get together and support a profitable commercial medical school on the fees of the students and various other fees that could be collected. The laboratory, then, not only drove out the commercial side of the medical school, but it introduced a very expensive form of education requiring not only buildings, but personnel, and along with the laboratory the spirit of research entered these institutions, and that added to the general expense.

There has been, during this quarter of a century, an access of funds to medical education that is very large in amount. These funds have come from some of the great foundations and from individuals scattered in all parts of the nation. For the most part these funds have come under the domination of the trustees or the controlling bodies of the various medical schools, and have been handled in accordance with their judgment. Some of the funds were obtained on the basis of carrying out medical education along certain specific lines, but for the most part those inhibitions have now been removed.

Alongside of this development that I have sketched briefly has gone an entirely different one. That is, the relationship of the public to medical practice. The commercial medical school turned out a considerable number of untrained men who under the raw conditions existing in certain parts of the country were able to fit in and do rather well, but with the

increasing population and the developing civilization it became evident that these men were not measuring up in all parts of the country to a proper standard. So there developed the so-called state boards of medical licensure.

These state boards became very powerful. At first they recognized the diplomas of institutions, but before long they began to give examinations. They have now developed to such an extent that they control in most of our states the personnel of the established professions, particularly that one of which I am speaking.

In medicine we have had also going alongside of this regulating activity several other forces. One is the Council on Medical Education, now known as the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals, of the American Medical Association. This association took up the whole question of revamping medical education and raising the standards of the medical schools. It had no power of control. It operated entirely through the power of publicity. It made surveys of these institutions and published a list outlining the names of the medical schools under certain headings, Class A, Class B, and Class C. There was no penalty associated with being in Class B, or Class C, except that you were rated by those who sought this list on a lower scale.

There was at first a good deal of opposition from the schools rated B and C, but that opposition was not successful, and there has gradually been a decrease in the C schools and the B schools until now we have a sufficient number of schools that qualify as A schools to take care of the medical students of the country.

That process was also assisted by the Association of American Medical Colleges. This organization was made up in an official way of representatives of the various colleges. It admitted to membership only those schools reaching certain standards. It made definite requirements in regard to the curriculum and the number of years and the number of hours in certain subjects; in fact, it developed a curriculum which was adopted by practically all of the schools. Some of the legislatures of the various states wrote that curriculum into

the laws of those states so that it became the guide for the licensing boards.

Now I have tried to outline several different lines where advance has taken place. You will note that at the present time, as I have sketched it, the universities have taken over medical education, speaking somewhat roughly, with rather a full control over endowments. Medical practice is largely controlled by state bodies granting licenses. There is also a voluntary National Board of Medical Examiners which has sought and obtained increasing recognition from this Board. The American Medical Association publishes regularly information about all medical schools.

The Association of American Medical Colleges, a self-organized and self-controlling body, has a great deal of influence not only upon the medical curriculum, but by various pressures upon the universities.

Now, then, who controls medical education? The medical faculties, universities' faculties and trustees, the Association of American Medical Colleges, the American Medical Association, or these licensing boards? Well, the question is a little difficult to answer, but we must face this situation. We have carried medical education to the point where it is entitled to be free. We need no longer hold up as we have in the past the majority of our institutions to an artificial and accepted curriculum and standard as a means of protecting the public and as a means of meeting these various state boards. The curriculum that has been devised is over-developed and has become hampering to the medical school and of medicine itself.

That curriculum is of such a character that it is most difficult to change radically. It has been built up by the interplay of members of the faculty seeking to divide up the students' time in a way that would lead to the major portion of that time falling in the particular department in which an individual faculty member was interested. It has been a matter of trade, with the interests of the medical student not always considered.

One reason for this is that medical education has had such

a large body of information with which to deal. More and more information has come in each year. Research has developed new facts nearly every day. Medical education has taken the turn of trying to develop a medical student into a walking encyclopedia of facts.

I heard a lecture many years ago given by a professor of medicine, who discussed an obscure disease, and after he had done so, feeling rather apologetic he said, "I have no doubt that none of you will ever see this disease, but I want to so conduct my lectures that you will never hear of anything in medicine in the future that you will not have heard of from me." That was something of the idea, that you must get it all in.

I doubt if there is any student in the world who can stand stuffing as well as the medical student, but even that has been overdone; he is over-stuffed, so that he has rebelled to some extent. There is not enough time in the four years ordinarily given to get in all of the subjects. The laboratory added to the clinical requirements, to so great a number of hours of actual study and laboratory exercise that it crowded the student unmercifully. At the same time, two processes go on in medical education. One is the accumulation of a vocabulary and of facts, and of laboratory techniques and skills of various sorts. That is one side. The other is the clinical side, where one is expected to use his own abilities and his own senses in making a study of an unknown problem which is contained within a patient, a human being. So that we have the laboratory, library, and lecture contrasted with their practical applications in the clinic. Clinical diagnoses and treatment are more or less in the nature of research, and every individual offers a somewhat different problem. It takes a different kind of training for the laboratory side, where there is an opportunity to get at exact facts, and for the clinical side, which is much more inexact but more responsible and more important.

A man can be trained on the laboratory side until he is perfect, as far as the ordinary things are concerned, and yet he may not be able to practice medicine at all if he has not

acquired clinical sense. The wide variation of opportunity in medical practice, with an expanding profession, has made it possible to take care of those trained in different ways, but I think that the medical profession now sees clearly that without adequate training on the clinical side we are not going to turn out successful physicians who can deal with the human side, which in the long run is the most important side of the care of the sick.

What are we going to do about it? We have the student caught in a curriculum that is more or less official in many parts of the country, that is fastened in by tradition and negotiated by the faculties, and that cannot by any stretch of the imagination be sufficient to permit an accumulation in the student's mind of all the facts that he may need.

We are pretty well back to the point where we must train in certain techniques and in certain methods of thought and make selections of those things that are important, depending upon the student to go on after his graduation and add more in the way of information.

We have in the medical curriculum the element of fatigue for the medical student. Someone was smart enough years ago to devise the plan of having students watch operations hour after hour. Except for the value of those hours as rest periods there was no very great advantage in watching the operation. And then there were certain well-known professors in every medical school that provided like rest periods which were used to good advantage by the students.

There have been, then, certain releases from the strain even within the curriculum, but that cannot be depended upon, because the faculties are improving and the operations are getting more distant. So that we are right up against the question that we must free the medical student from his chains, free the medical faculty from its own curriculum, make arrangements with the examining boards and others so that they will seek for knowledge as to whether the student can do certain things, rather than as to how many facts have been accumulated which can be poured out after proper cramming upon an examination paper.

My answer is that this problem belongs in the university and medical school faculties; that they must be set free both by the licensing boards and by the rest of us, to make those determinations that are necessary as to the way in which the time of the student shall be used so that he can become a first-class, practical physician.

There must be a little more give and take between the laboratory and the clinical sides and between the different laboratory subjects. You know the power of tradition is very strong, and that of acquisition is stronger. Somebody said to me the other day that they had discovered a new definition for a Conservative, but that it was 100 years old. It is this: A Conservative is a man who refuses to look at the new moon, out of respect for the old. Now, we must look at the new moon right along in this topic of medicine, for medical practice is changing, the conditions that the graduates of the schools are meeting are changing all of the time. We have studies going on under the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care. These studies indicate the transformation out in the world itself of the opportunities for medicine. The old methods will no longer provide men to meet the new conditions.

I think it is time for the university and medical school faculties to declare for independence and to start in to do further experimentation and to be given freedom to carry it on. They need some release at the bottom for the admission requirements to medicine which tie up the colleges, particularly as to requirements in physics, chemistry, biology, and so forth.

We used to know ten years ago exactly what physics a man ought to take in order to be a good medical student. It was down there by chapter and verse; and we knew it in chemistry. But I was talking to Mr. Milliken the other day, who classifies as a physicist, and he did not seem to know what kind of physics anybody should have, particularly how much of it could be given within a short space of time such as we have allotted for the subject. In other words, that is in for a change too.

I think we will have to go at our whole educational program with the idea that hard times mean new times in education. We have had a little too much money too fast in education. We have been able to do about as we have pleased, and now we will have to do as we ought to do.

The medical curriculum went through a whole series of changes, some of us called them improvements, but I often think of them in terms of the little story of the man who sent his wife to the hospital for an operation. He went around the next day to inquire about her, was met by the nurse who said she was all right, she was improving. The day after when he came, the intern who met him told him she was all right, she was improving; but the third time that he came the doctor who had performed the operation showed up and said that he regretted very much to tell him that his wife had died in the night. Well, then, he said, "Vot did she die of, improvements?"

So we have improved some of these things until they are just about ready to die off and give us something different. I hope that you, in this august body, with its great knowledge, will not improve the medical curriculum or anything else in education to the point of that dear lady whom I have just described.

RAY LYMAN WILBUR,
U. S. Department of the Interior.

The Standardization Movement in American Law Schools

THIS paper attempts a brief sketch of the influences and organizations in the United States which have played the principal part in molding the methods and standards of legal education. The American Law School began as a simple adaptation of apprentice training, with some faint inheritance of the university method from the European Continent. The present widespread and highly diverse collection of law teaching institutions came about almost wholly by spontaneous and undirected growth until the opening of this century. Since about 1900 several organized forces have been definitely and fruitfully at work. On the whole the American Law School represents a combination of three groups of ideas: First, a series of standards and methods which originated in the apprentice schools of the profession; second, a series of ideas which sprang from the universities and were adopted by example from the strong schools under academic auspices; third, a series of conceptions put into play by the lawyers themselves. These conceptions of the bar itself have had little to do with methods or technology but are aimed primarily at raising the length of time and the intensity of the period to which a student is exposed to scholastic influence before he is permitted to enter the bar. The influence of the apprentice tradition, has, as might be expected, been chiefly to emphasize the desirability of the student being thoroughly drilled in the technical methods and modes of practice. The tendency of the University School has been to stress the intellectual background, breadth of outlook, and mental cultivation of the student. The profession, in throwing its weight into the scale, has been much more preoccupied with character considerations than anything else, and, without attempting to interfere much with ways or means of teaching, has insisted on longer training and more thorough training.

The law as a profession in the United States began to take form in the second quarter of the eighteenth century. A few lawyers between 1700 and 1800 were sent abroad for training in the English schools, particularly those connected with the Inns of Court. The prevailing training for the first hundred years of the American profession, say from 1750 to 1850, consisted usually of several years of office apprenticeship with some fairly systematic reading in a few books of general legal principles and practice, followed by a rather nominal examination or a simple vouching ceremony by some older lawyer. During this period a number of schools sprang up, however; at first, in nearly every case, as apprentice groups surrounding a lecturer or a group of lecturers who carried on a more or less leisurely active practice at the same time. There were here and there, as at the College of William and Mary and at Columbia, efforts to establish Chairs of Law in universities, but while here and there a teacher on a foundation of this sort exerted, like George Wythe of Williamsburg, a great influence on the legally minded youngsters who came under his influence, the process of education for the law under university auspices had an almost negligible influence on the profession at large until after 1830.

Beginning about a century ago and continuing on to 1900, one university after another, but notably such institutions as Harvard, Virginia, Michigan, and Iowa in the earlier stages, either took over schools from the lawyers or created them outright. As the years went on these schools became not only recognized as the soundest sources of legal education but were the only considerable influence on the general development of standards in the United States. The great school at Harvard until the turn of the present century exerted the principal influence, and its development and standards represent the greater part of the force which slowly modified the lawyer's apprentice school.

About 1900 the legal profession itself began to take an active hand in affairs. In the Reconstruction Period following the Civil War a great number of State Bar Associations

came into existence, and for the first time the legal profession became regimented and coherent. In 1878 the American Bar Association was founded and included among its purposes the improvement of legal education. From 1878 to 1900 it passed occasional resolutions expressing various scattered ideas connected with legal education, but it was not until 1900 that any real motion is evident. At that date a group of the high standard University Law School who had been trying to carry on rather unsuccessfully under the wing of the American Bar Association, organized separately as the Association of American Law Schools and adopted a series of standards for admission to their own Association. These standards became the skeleton for the development of the last thirty years. The Bar Association, having cast off this organization of the schools themselves, continued rather inconsequentially for twenty years to gather its forces and determination. In 1921, under the leadership of Elihu Root, and advised by the law school authorities who had already developed some ideas in their own society, the Bar Association laboriously brought about the adoption of a set of standards. These standards provided certain minimum requirements for approved schools, provided for publicity for schools which lived up to them, and instructed the section on Legal Education, a branch of the Association, to implement the improvement on this outline. Today these standards, developed and but slightly altered, have become the most important force in the standardization of American legal education. The influence of the universities, now expressed almost wholly through the Association of American Law Schools, continues as a factor, but the profession itself, acting through the Association, is the conspicuous agency in the present development.

The American Bar Association acts through its "Council on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar." This Council is the executive board of a section of the Association which elects it. The Association grants the Council an annual appropriation and the Council with these funds employs an adviser. The adviser acts as the executive arm of the

section, inspects the schools of the country, and issues considerable publicity material including a quarterly pamphlet called "Notes on Legal Education." The present chairman of the section is John K. Clark, a well-known New York lawyer and a member of the Admissions Committee of the New York State Bar. The adviser is Mr. Will Shafrroth of Denver. The section has the duty of publishing from time to time the names of the law schools which comply with the American Bar Association standards. The Council meets about three times a year but carries on activities continuously between formal sessions.

The standards adopted in 1921 and since that date, slightly modified by subsequent resolutions of the Bar Association and construed by interpretations of the Council, constitute an effort to develop the standards of law school education and also admission to the Bar. They are as follows:

"1. The American Bar Association is of the opinion that every candidate for admission to the bar should give evidence of graduation from a law school complying with the following standards:

"(a) It shall require as a condition of admission at least two years of study in a college.

"(b) It shall require its students to pursue a course of three years duration if they devote substantially all of their working time to their studies, and a longer course, equivalent in the number of working hours, if they devote only part of their working time to their studies.

"(c) It shall provide an adequate library available for the use of the students.

"(d) It shall have among its teachers a sufficient number giving their entire time to the school to ensure actual personal acquaintance and influence with the whole student body.

"(e) It shall not be operated as a commercial enterprise and the compensation of any officer or member of its teaching staff shall not depend on the number of students or on the fees received.

"2. The American Bar Association is of the opinion that graduation from a law school should not confer the right of admission to the bar, and that every candidate should be subjected to an examination by public authority to determine his fitness.

"3. The Council on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar is directed to publish from time to time the names of those law schools which comply with the above standards and of those which do not and to make such publications available so far as possible to intending law students.

"In compliance with the policy announced by the American Bar Association in 1921, we recommend the establishment in each state, where none now exist, of opportunities for a collegiate training, free or at moderate cost, so that all deserving young men and women seeking admission to the bar may obtain an adequate preliminary education; and, that the several states be urged through the Council on Legal Education and Admissions to the bar, to provide, at stated times and places, for pre-legal examinations to be held by the University of the State or by the Board of Law Examiners thereof, for those applicants for admission to the bar, obliged to make up their preliminary qualifications outside of accredited institutions of learning."

It will be noticed that while the standards are primarily addressed to the requirements for admission to the bar, they make the requirements include graduation from a law school of a certain minimum type. The standards, therefore, amount to requirements addressed both to the admission requirements of the various states of the United States and also to the law schools of the United States. While the United States has an elaborate system of federal courts which have their own regulations for the admission of attorneys to practice, all those courts base their requirements for admission first on the fact that the applicant has been already admitted to the bar of his own state. The requirements for admission to the state courts are, therefore, the test of the requirements for practice throughout this country. As nearly all the states center the question of admission in the highest court in the state, and, as these requirements for admission are usually fixed either by state legislation or by rules of the court, the standards amount to reaching the question of admission by suggesting the form of control and requirements to be laid down by the central authorities in each state. In short, the Bar Association standards are aimed directly at the critical axis of control in the profession.

It will be noticed in the next place that the standards are aimed primarily at certain external and rather easily measured conditions in the schools. A requirement that students shall not be admitted to law schools without at least two years previous successful work in a College of Liberal Arts or its equivalent, the requirement that the law school course shall be one of three years for full-time students or an equivalent period (interpreted in practice as four years) in night schools; the requirement for an adequate library (which has been interpreted to mean not less than 7,500 law books to include such housing facilities as a library implies); the requirement of a certain number of full-time instructors (not less than three), and the requirement that the school shall not be operated as a proprietary or profit making organization are all rather rigid, rather easily measurable and, in a sense, rather indirect efforts to reach the much more intangible elements of a real educational institution. It will be noted that none of these standards enter at all into the problem of curriculum, courses of study, methods of teaching, examination, discipline or other pedagogical problems. There have been tendencies once or twice to make suggestions of this sort in the past. The Association a few years ago passed a resolution requesting the schools to require the study of Legal Ethics as a preliminary to graduation. The suggestion has met with resistance on the part of the schools chiefly on the ground that the topic cannot be usefully taught, and the suggestion has not been treated as a requirement for a standard school.

The Association of American Law Schools has an almost identical program for schools accepted to membership in its fold. While in some respects more rigid than those of the Bar Association, and while tending to become steadily more advanced and destined probably to exceed those of the Bar Association, the standards of the Law Schools society are today important chiefly as an influence on the high-grade schools rather than on the general level of legal education in the country. The Association is, however, the most important clearing house and stimulus to new ideas and advance-

ment in legal education. Its part, while less direct today on the general level of professional preparation, is exceedingly significant. As the Law School Association was the mother of the Bar Association program, it will continue to be a guide and mentor.

With this sketch of the bare outlines of the influences now operating on American Law School standards, we may turn briefly to what progress has developed and how smoothly and how the varying currents have responded to these movements. From the standpoint of progress the past decade shows some interesting developments. As the ultimate test of the effect on legal education turns largely upon the level of requirements for admission to the bar as administered by the states, the Bar Association has hammered with increasing vigor at this problem. Some significant success is evident. It will be noticed that the standards include not only the requirement of graduation from a school but also provision for examination in spite of such graduation. For present purposes it is enough to say that in 1921 there was no state whose requirements measured up to these standards, while at the present time there are nineteen states which show substantial, though not in all cases exact compliance with them, and that these nineteen states include about 50 per cent of the population of the United States and about the same percentage of its lawyers. So far as the standards for schools themselves are concerned, there were in 1921 about thirty-one schools conforming to the standards of the Bar Association, while there are today eighty-one. Meantime, however, the facilities for legal education in the United States have been immensely expanded, and with that expansion has developed a disappointing situation from the standpoint of higher levels for professional training. In 1921 there were 150 Law Schools in the United States, while there are today 180. In 1921 there were 25,000 students, while there are today 45,000. At the beginning of the same decade the approved schools educated about 23 per cent of the students, while today they educate about 33 per cent. The very low standard schools with a course of less than three years have

decreased 50 per cent in number, with an even greater decrease in attendance, and now train not much more than one student in a hundred as contrasted with six in a hundred ten years ago, and forty in a hundred thirty years ago. There has been an extraordinary development of night and part-time schools through the country which today represent the large problem. This general classification of schools trained 50 per cent of the students in 1921 but today trains 65 per cent. The effect of the Bar Association campaign has been almost to eliminate the lowest grade schools, vastly to increase the number and scope of the high grade schools, but to huddle the schools into two large classes, of which the typical members are university schools and commercial three-year night schools. As most of the night school group are conducted to a greater or less degree for profit, they can probably be reached only through the increase of requirements for admission as established by the state authorities. The substantial progress made at that point already indicates a continuance of the development in the next decade and probably a gradual approach to uniformity through the country.

The forces operating on American Law School education today on the whole show a general spirit of cooperation and understanding between the agencies which are tending to raise standards, and a constant battle in the form of publicity and conflict within the American Bar Association between those forces and the forces of resistance. On methods of teaching, breadth of education, thoroughness of preparation, and the spread of academic ideals and standards, the Law School Association now represents the chief force. On bar admission requirements and on the general level as measured by the external standards fixed by the Association, the Association is an increasing and today the prevailing force. There have been some differences of opinion between these two elements, due largely to the difference in outlook between the academic professor and the practicing lawyer, but they are not critical. The universities, on the whole, have responded readily to the requests of the Association.

About twenty university schools much exceed the Association requirements. No doubt part of this response is due to the fact that while the problems are chiefly budgetary, legal education is not relatively expensive as compared with other professional training, and the prestige of a good law school has always been useful to a university. The commercial schools, and a plea for democracy in the legal profession for which the distinguished director of the law work of the Carnegie Foundation has been a rather continuous spokesman, represent the principal retarding forces met by the Bar Association movement. By and large, the story is one of considerable progress and of occasional but seldom vital differences of opinion.

JAMES GRAFTON ROGERS,
U. S. Department of State.

Who and What Determine the Educational Policies of the Engineering Schools?

FORCE of tradition, developed from within rather than any external constraint, has been the dominant influence in fixing the policies of the American schools of engineering. A brief résumé of historical backgrounds may serve to suggest the line of descent. The nucleus of a royal corps of engineers existed in France as early as the thirteenth century. Their training was wholly casual until the middle of the eighteenth century, when Louis XV commissioned the distinguished engineer Perronet to train a corps of surveyors and designers to assist him in executing a vast system of national highways and bridges. Perronet ingeniously organized his office into a veritable school of student engineers. By the outbreak of the Revolution flourishing technical schools existed in France for both the civilian and military functions of the State. To offset the levelling influences of democracy a great scientific school, the *Ecole Polytechnique*, was created as a source of preliminary training and recruitment.

About thirty-five years later the *Ecole Centrale des Arts et Manufactures* was established in Paris as a semi-private institution to train engineers for industry. At the retirement of its founder it passed into the hands of the State. The engineering profession in France has always been a highly restricted body and one in which State functionaries have held a dominant position. The standards of training have been both formal and severe, and the profession one of high intellectual distinction.

British engineering, in contrast to French, had its origins not in the service of the State but in the highly individualistic setting of the industrial revolution. Its pioneers were workingmen, self-taught in rudimentary science but highly ingenious in the arts of invention and construction. In 1817 a group of young engineers, "impressed by what they them-

selves felt were the difficulties young men had to contend with in gaining the knowledge requisite for the diversified practice of engineering, resolved to form themselves into a society," which later received a royal charter as the Institution of Civil Engineers.

This was more than twenty years before even the most rudimentary provision was made for the teaching of engineering in any British institution of higher learning and fully a half century before any effective school of engineering was established. The accepted mode of training for engineering, as for virtually all other professions, was individual pupilage under a recognized practitioner. The newly founded Institution expressly recognized this practice and it remained the dominant mode of training until near the end of the century. The early schools of engineering made no pretext of displacing pupilage—their training was avowedly auxiliary.

Engineering education in the United States had its germ in a popular movement early in the last century to promote "the application of science to the common purposes of life." There was apparently no thought at the time of the founding the Rensselaer School at Troy in 1823 of creating a formal discipline for the profession of engineering. Indeed a profession, as such, could scarcely be said to exist in the United States. The aim was rather to train men to be teachers of practical science to farmers and mechanics. The Rensselaer School had barely begun its pioneer work when the advent of the railroad opened a new chapter in the history of American engineering. The engineers of the earlier decades—a scattered group of land surveyors, builders of roads, canals and bridges, and practical constructors of machinery—had been for the most part self-taught. With the railroad came a demand for engineers with much more precise knowledge of the arts of location and construction. With no established body of practitioners there was no foundation for a scheme of training by pupilage, as in England, and the engineering school grew up in the gap out of simple necessity. As English models could not be followed, they were borrowed from the highly developed technical schools of France and the

effort to apply science to the common purposes of life passed rapidly into the special form of a professional discipline for engineers.

The example set by Rensselaer was soon followed by a number of the older colleges and universities—six, in fact, had made some provision for the teaching of engineering before 1860. The original curriculum in civil engineering at Rensselaer occupied but a single year. There are indications that its founder, Amos Eaton, visualized a graduate school for men who had previously completed a liberal education. While this ideal was never fully realized, the students were mature and there was a goodly proportion of college graduates among them. When Rensselaer was reorganized after the models of Paris in 1849, the course of study was fixed at three years. Experience, however, soon showed that American preparatory education was far below the levels common in France, and it was found necessary to add a preparatory division of one year to close this gap. The distinction of name soon disappeared, leaving an integral four-year program which quickly aligned itself with the undergraduate levels of the American college system.

The engineering profession in America remained an unorganized body until 1852 when the American Society of Civil Engineers was established. The Society borrowed freely from the forms and traditions of the prototype Institution in Great Britain. Its spirit, however, was more individualistic. Many of the corporate functions, inherent in the royal character of the British body, remained largely undeveloped. Membership in the American Society was based on length of experience and mutual recognition of competency. No code of educational qualifications, either by pupilage or by formal schooling, was recognized. No organic bond existed between schools and profession. Professors, borrowing strongly from French models, had created the schools and continued to dominate them. Practitioners, with self-trained men in a majority, had formed the Society on British models. This gap between the traditions of the schools and the organized profession has never been fully closed.

The period leading up to 1860 had been one of difficult pioneering for the engineering schools. The Morrill Act of 1862, whereby the Federal government set aside grants of public lands to aid the States in establishing colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts was symbolic of a deep change of public attitude. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology was established at this period, on a much broader foundation than any of the earlier schools of applied science. Columbia gave a strong impetus to education for the mineral industries by establishing its School of Mines in 1865. Cornell became the first of the great "Land-Grant" institutions and through its liberal policies encouraged the older and the new educational disciplines to develop on even terms. These three institutions, together with Rensselaer and the University of Michigan, have probably done more by their example and by the organizers and teachers they sent forth, to stamp American engineering education with its essential character and standards, than any other influence, direct or indirect.

The Massachusetts Institute was particularly influential in establishing the practice of individual laboratory instruction. The example of Cornell has been especially marked in the interpretation of the term "college of mechanic arts" which now prevails among the land-grant institutions. When Cornell opened its doors in 1868 some of the trustees advised making the school of mechanic arts a manual labor college of inferior rank. There was a small water-power on the campus which they proposed to use in operating a manufacturing plant employing student labor. Andrew D. White, Cornell's first president, thought otherwise. What he visualized by education in the mechanic arts was a training "in every way equal to the learned professions." He personally visited Europe for a close study of technical education, raised funds, purchased equipment and engaged professors. Among Cornell's great contributions were a plan of shop instruction designed to shorten or displace the long period of apprenticeship for engineers in industry and experimental teaching and research on power machinery. A decade or so later Cornell

shared with Massachusetts Institute in placing electrical engineering on a plane equal to that of the older divisions.

The permanence and uniformity of the dominant patterns of engineering education may unhesitatingly be attributed to the prestige of these early institutions and the leadership of the organizers and teachers they sent out to every corner of the land in the great expansion period after 1870. Rensselaer created the tradition of the independence of the engineering college from external control, transplanted and acclimated the highly disciplinary French curriculum and rigorous régime of work, readjusted this program to American preparatory education and aligned it with the long-established undergraduate curriculum, and in general set the pattern for the training of civil engineers. Through one of its distinguished graduates, De Volson Wood, Rensselaer handed the torch on to the University of Michigan and through it to the whole group of western state universities. Columbia, borrowing ideals and plans from the *Ecole de Mines* of Paris, set models for the education of mining engineers. The Massachusetts Institute set the stamp of individual laboratory instruction on the entire process. Cornell gave the colleges their dominant models in shop and laboratory teaching of mechanical engineering. In the present century Cincinnati has won its place among the prototype institutions through the creation of the cooperative plan of alternating industrial experience and college instruction. The prestige of dominant examples has been the most powerful standardizing influence at work in the whole century of engineering education in America.

Second in importance has been the voluntary association of engineering teachers and more recently the collaboration of the colleges themselves. The Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education was an outgrowth of the Congress of Engineering at the Chicago exposition of 1892-3. It has always been primarily a voluntary association of educators, engineers and industrialists, although in recent years it has added an institutional form of membership and is gradually giving it greater prominence. Being an entirely free and voluntary body, it has never attempted to exercise any formal

standardizing function. For nearly forty years it worked through committees and conferences to give the colleges the largest mutual benefit from experience, to set goals for collective progress and to give executives and teachers the inspiration of solidarity in pursuing them. During the last twenty-five years, however, the Society has evolved steadily toward the functions of a corporate agency of the schools of engineering, without abandoning its original functions as an association of individuals. It was a prime mover, together with the national professional societies of engineers, in inducing the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching to undertake a study of engineering education. This task was entrusted to Dr. Charles R. Mann, now Director of the American Council on Education, and was completed in 1918.

The report reached the colleges in a period of grave unsettlement, due to the world war, when educators were deeply pre-occupied with the problem of salvaging what they could of their programs and organizations from the threatened disruption. The mood of the moment was unfavorable for calm appraisal and for the risks of progressive measures of readjustment. The aftermath of the war, with its tidal wave of returning students descending on decimated faculties, its rehabilitation program and its problems of mental and spiritual readjustment, merely increased the complications. Unrest was widespread and the leaders in the colleges lacked any confident sense either of their position or their direction. If any progressive movement was to be initiated, it was first necessary to re-animate the spirit of expectancy which had led up to the Mann investigation.

At this point the Society again took the initiative and this time with greater independence, in proposing to the Carnegie Corporation that the colleges themselves unite in a cooperative program of investigation and of coordinated measures for betterment, in which it was hoped to enlist the professional bodies and the national associations of industries. It was conceived that if the colleges themselves carried out the detail studies, under a coordinating Board, and shared in the appraisal and interpretation of results through their own

committees, this momentum would carry them directly on into successive steps of local appraisal, experimentation, and readjustment of practices and programs. Furthermore, once this process was under way as a mutual undertaking it would be possible to make a continuing movement.

The results, it is now believed, have largely justified these expectations. The seeds sown by the Mann report have been refertilized and largely added to. The colleges have before them a comprehensive body of facts concerning their requirements for entrance and graduation, the qualifications of their entering students, the processes of sifting and elimination, the placement and performance of their graduates, the qualifications and recruitment of their teachers, their operating costs, the extent and organization of their research activities, and the collective judgments of teachers and practitioners on most of the more active problems of educational objectives and practices. The historical evolution of engineering education, at home and abroad, has been traced, also the detailed evolution of engineering curricula. Material is also at hand for detailed comparisons between American and European aims, standards and practices in the whole field of post-secondary technical education.

No common plan or formula for engineering education has been in view at any stage, nor has there been any desire to lessen either the freedom of the schools or their capacity for local adaptation. On the contrary, it has been the growing conviction that more than one type of school is needed to round out an adequate national program of technical education on the post-secondary level. The aim has been not so much to pass a verdict on the schools, as to stimulate a continuing process of inquiry, appraisal, experiment and readjustment within the schools themselves. Each was to work out its own destiny with whatever light could be gained from the experience of all and with such guidance as the engineering professions and industries might supply.

The Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education has never acted in the role of an accrediting agency, nor has it defined any standards for its institutional members. When

the Society was established technical education was probably more in need of expansion than of protection of its standards. Conditions have since changed significantly. The country has been well covered by engineering colleges. The professional engineering societies have become actively interested in the educational qualifications of their members. Many states have established laws regulating the practice of engineering by licensure. It is only rarely that new schools of engineering are being established under public support or with adequate endowment. On the other hand a considerable group of proprietary schools have grown up, with slender resources and uncertain standards. As these institutions depend on advertising and solicitation for students and on fees for their support, their ethics are not always above question. The Y. M. C. A. has established a chain of degree-granting schools within its city associations with an undoubtedly sincere desire to render a worthy service, but in nearly all cases with very slender equipment and resources for the program attempted.

Would a distinctive accrediting agency have value to the engineering colleges as such? Apparently it would offer little direct advantage to the strongly established institutions, but might be much desired by the newer ones. Indirectly it would give the established institutions some control over the growth of the system of which they are a part, provided the standard of recognition is high enough to be a spur to promising new undertakings and to deter those which are ill-advised.

A recent inquiry revealed a positive preponderance of opinion among the heads of engineering schools that the accrediting standards of the regional and national associations for undergraduate colleges in general do not meet the distinctive requirements of the engineering colleges, that it would be desirable for the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education to establish and maintain a distinctive standard, and that the principal aims should be to check the establishment of schools with inadequate resources and uncertain standards and to upgrade the weaker institutions now existing. A majority felt that the S. P. E. E. should take the

initiative in seeking to bring the national and local engineering societies and the State boards of engineering examiners to some common policy and standard for the recognition of engineering colleges and the acceptance of credentials from their graduates. The industrialists consulted, on the other hand, strongly favored some plan of rating the schools by their product rather than their resources and requirements.

A third group of controlling forces, and one of rapidly increasing importance, is exercised by the national engineering societies. Originally aloof from the colleges and divergent in tradition, the professional bodies are now moving rapidly toward a much higher sense of responsibility for educational policies and standards. Several influences have contributed to this end, notably the cooperation between the professional societies and the colleges in the two general investigations, the desire of the colleges for the guidance of a more definite code of educational qualifications for professional recognition, the enactment of licensing laws for engineers in a majority of the States, and the stricter interpretation by the societies of their own requirements for membership and for the affiliation of student groups.

None of these societies has set up any fixed code of educational qualifications for membership. All, however, credit college education in an engineering school of "recognized standing" in lieu of part of their experience requirements. The Civil Engineers have a definite list of recognized colleges based on specific inspection and inquiry. The Mechanical and Electrical Engineers exercise some discretion, but in a more tacit fashion. The Chemical Engineers have given formal recognition to the curricula of certain institutions as approved courses, without denying to graduates of others any privileges of membership.

Up to the present time the licensing regulations adopted by the several States have had virtually no influence on educational policies and standards. Most of them contain a "grandfather clause" which admits any man who has been recognized as a practicing engineer for a certain period irrespective of his education. The educational standard for new

applicants is so loosely phrased as to be of little effect. The articles of agreement on reciprocal registration adopted by the National Council of State Boards of Engineering Examiners define an engineering school of recognized standing as one which requires "the equivalent of a high school or preparatory school diploma as an entrance requirement, and demands the equivalent of a four years' course in engineering for graduation."

A joint movement is now taking form, under the auspices of the five national engineering societies representing the major branches of the profession, the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education and the National Council of State Boards of Engineering Examiners, which has as its ultimate objective the professional certification of engineers. The actual scope of the movement is much broader. It envisages: (1) a plan of educational guidance for young men in secondary schools whose interest is turning toward engineering; (2) educational guide lines which mark out broad routes through the college period and the early years after college; (3) a code of educational objectives which will represent a more advanced and mature knowledge in scientific, technical, economic and civic realms than that commonly attained at graduation from college; (4) some agency for evaluating educational attainments and professional experience at this more mature level; and (5) a process of certification into the profession. Incidental to this last stage, it is thought that the colleges would willingly limit their award of professional degrees to men who have been thus certificated.

The writer believes that a plan of educational guidance and certification, sponsored and supervised by an agency representative of the profession at large, covering the entire process of development from the secondary school to the coming of age in the profession, exacting in its standards but flexible in its details, and expressing the social responsibilities of engineering, no less than its technical qualifications, would do more to enhance the public standing of the profession and to clarify the problems of the schools, than any other one

measure not within the range of practicability. It would leave the profession open to men of every degree and type of formal education who are able to meet adequate professional standards; it would create no legal monopolies, nor would it conflict in any way with reasonable and proper licensing laws; it would leave the fellowship of engineering societies open to the executive as well as the professional; it would leave their membership inclusive and not too rigidly graded; it would not impose on the societies invidious duties of regulating details of school and college training; it would place no strait-jacket on educational freedom and pioneering. But it would create within the now hazy boundaries of the profession an inner nucleus of highly qualified men whose professional standing and standards the public could not possibly mistake; it would give form and direction to the now after-college phase of the engineer's education; it would go far to create an articulate philosophy of social functions and duty within the profession; and it would make it more attractive to young men of the finest gifts and spirit.

The colleges would gain from such a plan in both tangible and intangible directions. It should draw to them more highly selected student material; it would leave them free to give a broadly functional or a highly specialized education as they might choose and one adjusted to local levels of preparatory education and individual welfare; it would add incentives and set goals for part-time and full-time postgraduate courses; by the incentives and direction given to after-college education, it would relieve some of the present congestion of curricula; it would give some objective measure of the quality of each institution's product, after a fair period of adjustment and testing in active life; and, through the joint agency which would be needed to guide and administer the system of certification, it would give the colleges a genuinely organic partnership with the professional body.

W. E. WICKENDEN,
Case School of Applied Science.

Constitution of American Council on Education

1. NAME: The name of the organization shall be "American Council on Education."

2. OBJECT: The general object of the Council is to promote and carry out cooperative action in matters of common interest to the Associations represented. It is understood that such matters will lie mainly in the field of university and college work, and in related educational fields. The Council was organized to meet national needs in time of war and will always seek to render patriotic service. It will also encourage international cooperation in educational matters.

3. MEMBERSHIP: The membership of the Council shall consist of three classes of members—constituent, associate, and institutional.

Constituent Members: This group shall consist of national educational organizations and such other bodies having similar interests as may from time to time be added by the Council.

Each organization shall be represented on the Council by three members who shall vote as a unit through a designated person. It is recommended that each organization, in the first election following the date of this meeting, elect one member for a term of one year; one for a term of two years; and one for a term of three years; and that all subsequent elections be for terms of three years. Elections of new members to the Council shall take effect immediately following such elections. Any election to fill a vacancy occurring during the year shall take effect at once, and shall be for the remaining period of the term thus filled.

The Council shall report its actions to the several organizations at the close of each year ending April 30, and at such other times as may be desired.

Associate Members: Associate members shall consist of such organizations having interests related to the work of the Council as may from time to time be elected by the Council. Associate members may send one representative each to the meetings of the Council, without right to vote.

Institutional Members: This group shall consist of colleges, universities and professional and technical schools of similar grade, that contribute not less than one hundred dollars to the treasury of the Council, and of other organizations of high standing that carry on higher educational activities or cooperate with educational institutions in improving instruction, and that contribute not less than two hundred dollars a year to the treasury of the Council. The conditions of eligibility for institutional membership, both for educational institutions and for other organizations, and the scale of membership

fees shall be fixed by the Executive Committee of the Council. Institutional members may send one representative each to the meetings of the Council. Whenever a vote is taken, if there are negative votes, the institutional members shall be counted separately and no action shall be valid unless supported by a majority of the constituent members present and voting. On request of any three members any matter directly affecting institutional members shall be made the subject of a referendum vote by them before final action is taken by the Council.

4. DUES: The annual dues for constituent members shall be \$100 a year, for associate members \$10 a year, and for institutional members from \$100 to \$500 a year for educational institutions, and from \$200 to \$2,500 a year for other organizations, a portion of which shall be for one or more subscriptions to THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD at \$2.00 a year for each subscription, the number of copies to which each member is entitled being fixed by the Executive Committee.

5. OFFICERS: The Council shall elect a Chairman, a first Vice-Chairman, a second Vice-Chairman, a Secretary, a Treasurer and such other officers as from time to time may seem desirable. The Treasurer need not be a member of the Council. All funds for which the Council, or any of its committees, is responsible, shall be received by the Treasurer and shall be disbursed by him under proper authority.

The Council shall also elect a salaried Director, who shall be the chief executive officer. He shall have general administrative supervision of the affairs of the Council and shall be responsible for the carrying out of such plans and policies as the Council, or its executive committee, may approve. He shall be *ex officio* a member of the executive committee and of all standing committees. He shall report annually to the Council, and shall make such other reports as the Chairman of the Council may request.

All officers, except the Director, shall be elected at the Annual Meeting, and their terms of office shall begin immediately following election.

6. EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE: There shall be an Executive Committee consisting of eleven members, eight selected from the representatives of the constituent organizations, and the Director, Associate Director, and the United States Commissioner of Education *ex officio*. The Chairman and Secretary of the Council shall be Chairman and Secretary, respectively, of the Executive Committee. The remaining six members shall be elected by the Council, two at each annual meeting to serve for a three-year term. The Executive Committee shall hold meetings at least quarterly, and shall report its actions to the members of the Council after each meeting.

In case a member of the Executive Committee shall fail to attend (or to designate an alternate) at two meetings of the Executive Committee, he shall cease to be a member thereof. In case of a vacancy on

the Executive Committee, the Committee shall have power to fill the vacancy until the next meeting of the Council.

7. MEETINGS: The annual meeting of the Council shall be held on the first Friday in May. Special meetings may be called by the Chairman. The Chairman shall call a meeting at any time at the request of representatives of any three constituent organizations.

Written notice of all meetings shall be sent to all members at least two weeks in advance, except in special circumstances when this provision may be waived by consent of the representatives of two-thirds of the organizations constituting the Council.

Those present at any meeting of which written notice has been duly given, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business, but no action shall become effective until approved by representatives of a majority of the organizations constituting the Council.

8. BUDGET: The Executive Committee shall present a budget each year at the annual meeting, and no financial obligation shall be incurred by any officer or committee except as authorized by the Council or the Executive Committee. The fiscal year of the Council shall close on April 30.

9. TRAVELING EXPENSES: The traveling expenses of the officers and the Executive Committee may be paid from the funds of the Council.

It is recommended that the traveling expenses of the other members attending the meetings of the Council be paid by the organizations which they represent.

10. COMMITTEE APPOINTMENTS: The Council and the Executive Committee may appoint special committees. All committee appointments shall expire April 30, with right to reappointment. The members of committees may be selected from the members of any institution associated with one of the organizations constituting the Council. Chairmen of committees shall be invited to sit with the Council, without right to vote.

11. AUTHORITY OF COMMITTEES: Final responsibility for all undertakings rests with the Council. The Executive Committee shall act for the Council between meetings, but shall refer all questions involving new policy to the members of the Council for letter ballot before taking final action. Committees are not authorized to commit the Council to any undertaking not specifically authorized by the Council or its Executive Committee.

12. AMENDMENTS: This Constitution may be amended at any time by vote of three-fourths of the organizations constituting the Council.

Written notice of any proposed change in the Constitution shall be sent to all constituent members of the Council at least two weeks before the meeting at which the proposed change is to be considered.

Officers of the American Council on Education, 1932-33

Chairman: R. M. Hughes, President, Iowa State College, representing the Association of Land Grant Colleges.

First Vice-Chairman: H. C. Lancaster, Johns Hopkins University, representing the American Association of University Professors.

Second Vice-Chairman: F. W. Shipley, Washington University, representing the Association of Urban Universities.

Secretary: Doak S. Campbell, George Peabody College for Teachers, representing the American Association of Junior Colleges.

Treasurer: Corcoran Thom, President, American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

Director: Charles Riborg Mann.

Associate Director: John Henry MacCracken.

Assistants to the Director: Charles E. Hewitt; Arthur L. Williston.

Executive Committee: For 3 years—Augustus Trowbridge, Princeton University, representing the Association of American Universities; F. L. Bishop, University of Pittsburgh, representing the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education. For 2 years—Charles H. Judd, University of Chicago, representing the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; Florence Bamberger, Johns Hopkins University, representing the National Education Association. For 1 year—Samuel P. Capen, Chancellor, University of Buffalo, representing the Association of American Colleges; P. J. McCormick, Catholic University of America, representing the National Catholic Educational Association; the Director, Associate Director, and the U. S. Commissioner of Education, *ex officio*.

CONSTITUENT MEMBERS AND THEIR DELEGATES FOR 1932-33

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES OF PHARMACY:

Charles H. LaWall, Philadelphia College of Pharmacy, West Philadelphia, Pa.

R. A. Lyman, College of Pharmacy, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.

A. G. DuMez, School of Pharmacy, University of Maryland, Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF DENTAL SCHOOLS:

J. Ben Robinson, Baltimore College of Dental Surgery, Baltimore, Maryland.

W. F. Lasby, College of Dentistry, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

R. S. Vinsant, College of Dentistry, University of Tennessee, Nashville, Tenn.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES:

A. I. Andrews, Grand Rapids Junior College, Grand Rapids, Mich.

J. W. Cammack, Averett College, Danville, Virginia.

Doak S. Campbell, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES:

Robert M. Steele, State Teachers College, California, Pa.

Norman W. Cameron, State Teachers College, West Chester, Pa.

J. L. Jarman, State Teachers College, Farmville, Va.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS:

H. G. Doyle, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.

H. C. Lancaster, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

H. W. Tyler, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN:

Kathryn McHale, 1634 Eye St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

Belle Rankin, 1634 Eye St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

Esther Richards, Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION:

H. H. B. Meyer, Legislative Reference Service, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.

Clara W. Herbert, Public Library of the District of Columbia, Washington, D. C.

J. L. Wheeler, Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore, Md.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES:

Guy E. Snavely, Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Ala.

J. Edgar Park, Wheaton College, Norton, Mass.

S. P. Capen, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES:

Guy Stanton Ford, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

Henry Gordon Gale, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Augustus Trowbridge, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE MIDDLE STATES:

H. G. Doyle, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.

Samuel Osbourn, Germantown Academy, Philadelphia, Pa.

Ralph E. Files, East Orange High School, East Orange, N. J.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES:

Guy E. Snavely, Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Ala.

K. J. Hoke, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.

M. L. Combs, State Teachers College, Fredericksburg, Va.

ASSOCIATION OF LAND GRANT COLLEGES:

R. M. Hughes, Iowa State College of A. & M. Arts, Ames, Iowa.

R. D. Hetzel, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.

R. A. Pearson, University of Maryland, College Park, Md.

ASSOCIATION OF URBAN UNIVERSITIES:

F. W. Shipley, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

Rufus Smith, New York University, New York City.

C. S. Marsh, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.

COUNCIL OF CHURCH BOARDS OF EDUCATION:

Robert L. Kelly, 111 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

Frederick E. Stockwell, Witherspoon Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

Joseph P. MacMillan, 740 Rush Street, Chicago, Ill.

COUNCIL ON MEDICAL EDUCATION AND HOSPITALS OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION:

Reginald Fitz, 721 Huntington Avenue, Boston, Mass.

Merritte W. Ireland, 1759 Q Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

W. D. Cutter, 535 N. Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

COUNCIL OF SECTION OF LEGAL EDUCATION AND ADMISSIONS TO THE BAR OF THE AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION:

Will Shafrroth, 730 Equitable Building, Denver, Colo.

Alexander B. Andrews, 239 Fayetteville St., Raleigh, N. C.

DENTAL EDUCATIONAL COUNCIL OF AMERICA:

Henry L. Banzhaf, 1217 West Wisconsin Avenue, Milwaukee, Wis.

Dr. Wm. H. G. Logan, 55 East Washington St., Chicago, Ill.

Dr. Albert L. Midgley, 1108 Union Trust Bldg., Providence, R. I.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION:

Frank W. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.

Albert B. Meredith, School of Education, New York University,

New York City.

S. D. Shankland, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.

INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION:

Stephen P. Duggan, Institute of International Education, New York City.

William F. Russell, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Edward R. Murrow, Institute of International Education, New York City.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STATE UNIVERSITIES:

W. E. Clark, University of Nevada, Reno, Nevada.

W. A. Jessup, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

A. H. Upham, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION:

Rt. Rev. Msgr. Edward A. Pace, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

Rt. Rev. P. J. McCormick, Catholic Sisters College, Washington, D. C.

Rev. George Johnson, 1312 Massachusetts Ave., Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION:

George D. Strayer, Columbia University, New York City.
Florence Bamberger, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
F. W. Ballou, Franklin School, Washington, D. C.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS:

C. H. Judd, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
J. B. Edmonson, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
Fred J. Kelly, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF ENGINEERING EDUCATION:

L. W. Wallace, American Engineering Council, Washington, D. C.
C. H. Warren, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
F. L. Bishop, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

ASSOCIATE MEMBERS

American Association for the Advancement of Science.
American Association of Collegiate Registrars.
American Association of Museums.
American Council of Learned Societies.
American Historical Association.
American Institute of Architects.
American-Scandinavian Foundation.
Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture.
C. R. B. Educational Foundation.
Educational Council Y. M. C. A.
Federated Council on Art Education.
Modern Language Association of America.
National Advisory Council on Radio in Education.
National Association of Deans of Women.
National Committee of Bureaus of Occupations.
National Council on Religion in Higher Education.
National Council of Teachers of English.
National Research Council.
National Society of College Teachers of Education.
National Vocational Guidance Association.
United Chapters of Phi Beta Kappa.

Institutional Members, 1932-33

ALABAMA:

Alabama Polytechnic Institute
Alabama, University of
Birmingham-Southern College

ARIZONA:

Arizona, University of

CALIFORNIA:

California Institute of Technology
California, University of
Claremont Colleges (Pomona-Scripps)
College of the Pacific
Dominican College
Immaculate Heart College
Loyola University
Mills College
Occidental College
San Francisco, University of
Southern California, Univ. of
Stanford University

COLORADO:

Colorado College
Colorado State Teachers College
Denver, University of

CONNECTICUT:

Albertus Magnus College
Connecticut Agricultural College
Connecticut College
Junior College of Connecticut
Wesleyan University
Yale University

DELAWARE:

Delaware, University of

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA:

American University
Catholic University of America
Georgetown University
George Washington University
Howard University
Trinity College

FLORIDA:

Florida State College for Women
Florida, University of
Rollins College

GEORGIA:

Agnes Scott College
Emory University
Georgia School of Technology
Georgia State College for Women
Georgia, University of
Shorter College
Wesleyan College

HAWAII:

Hawaii, University of

ILLINOIS:

Carthage College
Chicago, University of
De Paul University
Illinois College
Illinois, University of
Lewis Institute
Loyola University
Northwestern University
Rockford College
Rosary College
St. Xavier College

INDIANA:

DePauw University
Indiana State Teachers College
Indiana University
Notre Dame, University of
Purdue University
Rose Polytechnic Institute
St. Mary's College, Notre Dame
St. Mary-of-the-Woods College

IOWA:

Coe College
Grinnell College
Iowa State College of A.&M.A.
Iowa State Teachers College
Luther College
State University of Iowa

KANSAS:

Wichita, Municipal University of

KENTUCKY:

Centre College

Kentucky, University of

Louisville, University of

LOUISIANA:

Louisiana State Normal College

Louisiana State University

Southwestern Louisiana Institute

Tulane University

MAINE:

Bowdoin College

MARYLAND:

Goucher College

Hood College

Johns Hopkins University

Loyola College

Maryland, University of

Mt. St. Mary's College

Notre Dame College

St. John's College

St. Joseph's College

Western Maryland College

MASSACHUSETTS:

Amherst College

Boston College

Boston University

Bradford Academy, the Junior College of

Clark University

Harvard University

Holy Cross College

International Y. M. C. A. College

Mass. Institute of Technology

Mt. Holyoke College

Radcliffe College

Simmons College

Smith College

Wellesley College

Wheaton College

Williams College

MICHIGAN:

Albion College

Alma College

Detroit, University of

Kalamazoo College

Marygrove College

Michigan, University of

Western State Teachers College

MINNESOTA:

Carleton College

College of St. Catherine

College of St. Scholastica

College of St. Teresa

Hamline University

Macalester College

Minnesota, University of

St. Olaf College

MISSISSIPPI:

Millsaps College

Mississippi A. & M. College

Mississippi Woman's College

MISSOURI:

Central College

Lindenwood College

Missouri, University of

Northwest Missouri State Teachers College

The Principia

St. Louis University

Washington University

Webster College

MONTANA:

Montana, University of

NEBRASKA:

Nebraska, University of

NEW HAMPSHIRE:

Dartmouth College

New Hampshire, University of

NEW JERSEY:

College of St. Elizabeth

Georgian Court College

Rutgers University

Stevens Institute of Technology

NEW MEXICO:

State University of New Mexico

NEW YORK:

Adelphi College
 Alfred University
 Buffalo, University of
 Colgate University
 College of the City of New York
 College of Mt. St. Vincent on
 Hudson
 College of New Rochelle
 College of the Sacred Heart
 Columbia University
 Cornell University
 D'Youville College
 Fordham University
 Good Counsel College
 Hamilton College
 Hunter College
 Keuka College
 Manhattan College
 Marymount College
 Nazareth College
 New York State College for
 Teachers
 New York University
 Polytechnic Institute of Brook-
 lyn
 Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute
 Rochester, University of
 Russell Sage College
 Sarah Lawrence College
 Skidmore College
 Syracuse, University of
 St. Joseph's College for Women
 Union College
 Vassar College
 Wells College

NORTH CAROLINA:

Catawba College
 Duke University
 North Carolina, University of

OHIO:

Akron, University of
 Case School of Applied Science
 Cincinnati, University of
 College of Mount St. Joseph on
 the Ohio

OHIO—Continued

Dayton, University of
 Denison University
 Heidelberg College
 Marietta College
 Miami University
 Muskingum College
 Notre Dame College
 Oberlin College
 Ohio Wesleyan University
 Otterbein College
 Western Reserve University
 Wittenberg College

OKLAHOMA:

Oklahoma A. & M. College
 Oklahoma, University of
 Tulsa, University of

OREGON:

Oregon State Agricultural Col-
 lege
 Oregon, University of

PENNSYLVANIA:

Allegheny College
 Bryn Mawr College
 Bucknell University
 Drexel Institute
 Dropsie College
 Grove City College
 Immaculata College
 Lafayette College
 La Salle College
 Lehigh University
 Marywood College
 Mt. St. Joseph College
 Pennsylvania College for
 Women
 Pennsylvania State College
 Pennsylvania, University of
 Pittsburgh, University of
 Rosemont College
 Seton Hill College
 St. Thomas College
 Swarthmore College
 Temple University

PENNSYLVANIA—Continued

Villanova College
Washington and Jefferson College
Wilson College

RHODE ISLAND:

Brown University

SOUTH CAROLINA:

Converse College
South Carolina, University of
Winthrop College

SOUTH DAKOTA:

Huron College
South Dakota State School of
Mines

TENNESSEE:

Chattanooga, University of
Fisk University
Southwestern
Vanderbilt University

TEXAS:

Baylor University
Incarnate Word College
Our Lady of the Lake College
Rice Institute
Texas, University of

UTAH:

Brigham-Young University
Utah Agricultural College

VERMONT:

Middlebury College
Vermont, University of

VIRGINIA:

College of William and Mary
East Radford State Teachers
College
Mary Baldwin College
Sweet Briar College
Virginia Polytechnic Institute
Virginia, University of
Washington and Lee University

WASHINGTON:

College of Puget Sound
Washington, University of

WEST VIRGINIA:

Bethany College
West Virginia State College

WISCONSIN:

Lawrence College
Marquette University
Milwaukee-Downer College
Wisconsin, University of

WYOMING:

Wyoming, University of

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Educational Values of Recreation¹

M R. CHAIRMAN, ladies, and gentlemen, I have a little fear that in the enthusiasm for subjects which furnish my recreation I may be imposing upon you a discussion of something with which you are already more familiar than I.

There has been much written on the educational value of play, both as concerns the child and the grown-up. The contribution which I have been making to my own thinking relates more largely to development of the adult.

In any discussion it is important to give definition of the things with which one deals. It is then possible to judge one's purpose. I look upon recreation as largely concerning itself with rest or change of occupation in the therapeutic sense, or with activities which have to do with the building-up process, whether it be physical, mental, or spiritual. Much which we class as recreation is in large measure attempt at self-expression. Most of the people in the world spend the greater part of their time in making a living, and only in so-called recreation do they find opportunity for activities which are wholly satisfactory to them.

Education—I should not attempt to define more than to say that to me it is a process by which we learn first of all what our capacities are, and what we may attempt hopefully. We assemble a few facts with which to work; we measure ourselves against problems of the community; we learn self-restraint; and we attempt to see that the candle of our lives is somehow lighted with that inspirational thing which we call interest.

A small part of the time devoted to education may profitably be used in study of self-control. As a small boy, living in contact with Indians, I thought it a great thing to learn.

¹ Address before the annual meeting of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., May 7, 1932.

When the town became large enough to support a band, I trained myself to sit reading a book with my back to the window without showing evidence of interest, while the band went by. This is useful, but I do not believe that anyone has accomplished much in the world's work merely by self-control. In last analysis, it is stimulus of interest that gives the greatest opportunity in life, and then self-control becomes important.

Consider the difference between a child sitting in a schoolroom on a warm spring morning at about eleven-thirty, plodding away at algebra, Latin, or some other largely foreign thing; and then see the child half hour later working himself to the limit physically and intellectually in our great American game of baseball. In the schoolroom he had reached his limit, couldn't do another thing; on the playground he is an active, vigorous creature stimulated by the enthusiasm of a personal interest.

I know that many of you have studied what to do with the child in order to bring into the educational program the kind of interest shown outside the schoolroom. It is not my purpose to suggest how we might change the educational program for the child so as to profit by advantages in the educational use of his recreation. You have done that in many ways. I ought, then, at once to turn attention to the other aspect of the problem, namely, the educational value of recreation as it relates to the adult.

I sometimes think of education with a definition different from that given a few moments ago; that is, as representing the continuing intellectual and spiritual growth of the individual. I look upon life as a process which stops when growth ends. When our mental sutures close there is no particular interest in living, and we cannot be particularly valuable to others.

Looking upon recreation as a process by which we may shift to some other activity in order to build up physically or intellectually or spiritually, I see it, especially for the adult, as an opportunity for that kind of expression which concerns our deeper personal interests.

One of the contacts which I have enjoyed in the past few years has been through relation to educational work as it touches outdoor life in various activities, such as national parks, state parks, and city parks. In the course of this experience I learned that the man or woman who goes to Grand Canyon or Yellowstone or Yosemite for a week's vacation is cut off, for the moment, from the business of making a living. Nearly all of the small cares that make up a good part of our ordinary living are also left behind. Under such conditions the mental and spiritual processes turn not only toward appreciation of nature, but toward enjoyment of intellectual life. Frequently, at such times, consideration is given to the greatest of our problems. The most intimate and deepest spiritual experiences may develop and great decisions be made.

The spiritual process under these conditions is not just separated from life. It is based upon previous experience, and is a summing up of elements which enter into our problems. It makes possible clean-cut decisions that are not turned this way or that by exigencies of the moment. I discovered many people forming opinions relating to the most critical of all questions, intellectual and spiritual.

A part of the function of national parks, as I see it, is to develop an environment in which this thinking may be carried on to best advantage. The situation concerns not only the natural features around us. It also involves opening opportunities for thought along lines which may be beneficial or constructive under these particular conditions.

In thinking over this problem a few days ago, I hesitated a moment as to the precise title of the discussion. On finding that it was "educational values of recreation," it occurred to me that it would be interesting to see what it would look like if stated as the "recreational values of education." It seemed to me that this situation offers a real problem.

When a man or woman goes into the open to be free from cares and to do thinking along the lines which are most important, you deal with the educational advantages of recreation. Why should we not carry back into the routine

of everyday life the idea of having recreational joy from the things which are educational, instead of looking upon them as done in order to maintain our place in society?

Whatever comes out of this particular period in the history of the world will include the idea that, after all, things of the mind and spirit are relatively important; and that there is as much or more joy to be obtained from them than from the rush of other things which have seemed to represent the acme of development in American life during recent years.

I believe also that we are coming to a place where reasonably clear presentation of evidence, and an unbiased judgment, without reference to money, will have value. I look back only a very short time to the period when some of my friends preached the idea that you couldn't have a great war because you couldn't finance it. When we came to the war, everybody laughed because we could have all the millions and billions wanted. We borrowed them from the next generation. Today we are wondering whether we really could afford it, after all.

It is only a few months back to the time when we all wondered whether, after all, bonds were worth much compared with stocks. I remember sitting with a friend, discussing whether United States Steel Common, one of the greatest potentialities of the country, was a good buy at 170. It went to 260, and they laughed and said, "Why, it's going to 360." I don't know what it is this morning—perhaps 26.

We have been stampeded by judgments that had to do with accumulation and organization. I hope we are coming back to a time when all can say what a friend remarked the other day, "Well, we've not lost anything but money; all the things that are worthwhile we still have."

If we could now develop the recreational advantages of education and make this a part of the joy in life, we could at one time talk about the educational advantages of recreation and at another time we could urge the recreational values of education, or of the higher life.

JOHN C. MERRIAM,
Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.

Undergraduate Publications

IT IS easy to step on board a train of words that someone else has coupled together, and then, as Chesterton once suggested, ride to another man's destination. This is what happens to rituals and slogans, and teachers are especially prone to go riding on them.

"Student self-government" is a phrase that serves as the locomotive for many a train of this sort, and college administrators have often ridden behind it into desert spots. Interpret the phrase "student self-government" to mean the right of students to make last year's mistakes all over again, with no one to stop them, and one scrutinizes the train a little more thoughtfully before climbing aboard.

In no other field of student activity has complete student control worked more injury to the students themselves than among campus publications. It is of these that I write, not asserting that I have any panacea for the ills of complete student management, or a program to be adopted in its entirety by any one campus. Rather, I should like to submit certain experiences and observations, and such suggestions as occur to me after several years of trial and error.

Three types of publications appear commonly throughout our American colleges; an annual, a newspaper, and a magazine,—either literary or "comic." Of these, the annual publication is most general. Nearly every undergraduate group in the country issues one, whatever else the students may publish.

I. THE COLLEGE ANNUAL

The professional manufacturer of books, viewing some of these college annuals for the first time, would say offhand that they present an unusual number of technical manufacturing difficulties, many of them unnecessary; and he would enter gingerly into a contract for making one. The average intelligent book publisher would not allow a book

so organized pictorially and typographically to appear on his lists.

But the undergraduate editor-in-chief, chosen perhaps because of his popularity, perhaps in part because of his membership in a certain campus society, or at best because he has "literary" instincts and enjoys writing, but without any editorial or manufacturing experience whatsoever, enters lightly upon the compiling of a volume that would worry experienced men.

What are the technical difficulties in the making of such a book? In hinting at them I shall try to avoid too much technical detail. Manufacturing costs are always increased out of proportion to the size of the book by pictures that vary in size and character. Fine copper half-tone engravings call for a heavy-coated paper and cannot be well reproduced on a rough-surfaced page. Zinc line-cuts, most inexpensive to manufacture, may be printed upon any paper surface. The use of both adds to the difficulties of exact cost-estimate. Type matter of a uniform width may be set by machine at a minimum of cost; every time reading matter must be set around illustrations, making varying lengths of type-line, the cost goes up.

I cite these few details to indicate how difficult it is to estimate in advance the cost of making the average college annual, even for an expert figurer. It is manifestly impossible for inexperienced college boys to check such estimates. Their only way of estimating for themselves is to compare the figures of half a dozen thoroughly reliable bidders.

Keep these facts in mind, while I interpolate a word as to the size of the college annual business in the United States. The World Almanac lists 700 colleges. Let me conservatively assume that 600 of them publish annuals. (Probably three or four thousand high schools in the United States also publish annuals, but I am leaving these out of consideration.)

Figures just received from one hundred universities and colleges, ranging in size and type from the small country college to the numerically great state university and the

wealthy endowed institution, indicate that costs range from \$2,000—there are few so low—to \$25,000 spent annually at one state university and \$20,000 at another, with a \$35,000 expenditure at one national institution. The average cost seems to be \$5,000; but if I call it \$4,000 our 600 colleges spend \$2,400,000 a year. Evidently the business of manufacturing college annuals is worth getting after! When we recall those other facts—first, that the cost of making such a book is difficult to estimate; and second, that the control of it is in the hands of inexperienced youngsters—one readily sees that some people will get after this business who are both greedy and dishonest. Others will get after it hopefully, who are merely incompetent to get business in the normal market, in competition with experienced printers.

Five large items of expense are involved in the making of a college annual. The making of photographs; the making of engravings; typesetting and printing; paper and binding. Minor items of expense have to do with the editorial organization, such as stationery, commissions, office expense, which may reach an extravagant amount or practically nothing at all. The manufacturing concerns which are interested in getting this college annual business may be printers, or book binders, or engravers, or simply go-getters. Some engraving houses, having specialized in the business, make a bid on the cost of the entire book, and farm out the printing and binding to some neighboring concerns. Or a printer may make a proposition for the entire job and farm out the engraving and binding; or a man who has neither printery nor bindery nor an engraving shop may set himself up as a "manufacturer of college annuals," send out a clever representative who knows how to talk the latest collegiate patter and the latest fads, and get the contract. He then farms out printing, engraving, and binding to the lowest bidders, and after he has paid them all off, has a profit left for himself.

On one occasion I recall stepping in between a group of eager young editors and a smooth-spoken gentleman who had told them that they might have until the day after tomorrow to sign his contract. After that time, he said, his

firm would refuse the job, as they published only a limited number of distinguished books each year and they were willing to take on only one more. I suggested to the editors that they thank this "builder of college annuals" for the opportunity, but they would wait until they had heard from two or three well known book-manufacturers who had been invited to bid. He wrote back at once reducing his bid \$600 without altering any specifications, and without reference to the time limit. Presumably he was still allowing himself a profit.

The character of this business is often unsound even where only honest dealing is involved. The reputable printer, who has ever had anything to do with a college annual, knows that it is almost impossible to estimate the exact cost of such a book. Even if he could estimate closely on typography, with so many inset pictures, with colored inserts, and all of the frippery that is in vogue at the moment, he still knows that he has to deal with immature, amateur editors who change their minds, who correct copy after it is in type, who break contracts as to time of delivery, etc. But since he must submit a bid, rather than work on a cost-plus basis, he makes his bid high enough to cover contingencies. Other bidders do the same thing, and as a result the books almost invariably cost more than they should.

Secondly, in those instances where everyone engaged in the business is honest, one must reckon with the dominating impulse to "keep up with Lizzie." College students are astonishingly conventional, with all their boasts of individuality. Every student group issues an annual because every other student body issues one. If one introduces decorative borders, or "inserts" in full color, all must do it, however shoddy the resultant appearance. If one college has a heavy, deep-embossed leather cover with panel insert, then that becomes the prevailing mode. Just at present it is the thing to have a "theme" or "motif" for the book. "This year we have adopted a pirate theme," says the young editor. "Why?" I ask. "Don't you think it's a fine idea?" he says; "so decorative, with treasure chests and all

that stuff." With each new editorial board trying to outdo not only all rival colleges but its own predecessors, the book tends to become more expensive each year.

In those instances where a dishonest maker of annuals is involved, he visits the young editors-elect and talks glibly of "themes" and "motifs." He speaks vaguely of the beautiful books he has done for the University of Calasota and Siwash College. He speaks of himself as a "directing engineer" or "builder of books beautiful"—"an artist" who has allowed himself the privilege of contracting for, and then planning and directing a limited number of annuals, and able to take on just one more. He draws up a contract which sets a definite limit to the times for receipt of photographs and of manuscript; leaves himself free to make liberal charges for extra corrections after type has been set, and a profitable charge for each additional page, in case the book grows larger than originally planned. These are legitimate items in any contract. But having established himself as the loyal friend and adviser of these youngsters, more interested in a beautiful job than in his own profits, he proceeds to encourage the addition of pages and frills. He permits continued changes in proof, though he knows well that a little warning or instruction might remind the editors of the added expense they are incurring, and give them training as well; and he permits the continuance of delays, without warning his forgetful charges that each day of delay beyond the contract's time adds to the cost.

Since I am engaged in sketching a gloomy picture, I might as well finish it. There has grown up in some colleges a tradition that certain campus positions of trust are both college honors and means of financial profit to their incumbents. Just which position shall yield nothing but honor and which shall yield also some profit has not always been clearly defined; nor has there been open discussion as to just what is a legitimate, financial gain from those recognized as money-making positions. Few college annuals are intelligently budgeted in advance, and if it is understood that their editors may make money out of them, no understanding

exists as to what is a fair profit. A book is manufactured, for instance, which actually costs \$7.50 per copy; but it is sold to students for \$6 per copy because that is all they can be persuaded to pay. The loss is covered by receipts from advertising and by a tax upon campus societies and organizations whose pictures and writeups are inserted in the book. But if editors and business managers receive a share in any profits after the sale of the book, who is to determine whether or not those profits shall be increased by raising the retail price to students and increasing the tax upon campus organizations? Who shall say what part of that profit ought to be rebated to the fellow students who provided it? Who, in fact, shall determine what the retail price of the book should be, if that price has no relationship to cost, but is merely an arbitrary figure?

As to advertising, this, of course, is a possible way of making both ends meet, but prejudiced as I am in favor of a balanced budget for the annual, no one can persuade me that advertising space in it is worth what the merchants generally are charged. I doubt whether anyone ever yet saw a student earnestly turning the advertising pages at the back of his college annual, and noting an address or a telephone number. Student solicitors of advertising space are tempted to sell their goods on false pretenses. "This is the campus annual," they say. "Newspapers and magazines are thrown away, but this remains on the family center table for years and years. There are 8,000 students at Calasota University and every student has an average of three intimate relatives in the household at home. That makes 24,000 people." Does this student agent, who may be taking a course in the ethics of advertising, tell the merchant that only 1,500 copies of the book are printed, and not all of them sold? But it is even more likely that he persuades merchants to advertise by means of a polite sort of blackmail, which surely is not good training for him, vocationally.

Finally, in the somber details of my sketch: the editor and manager, who know that their profits are uncertain, unless they are on salary, are poorly prepared to resist the

advances of the unethical business man, "I am not interested in going after college annual business," said the president of a large photo-engraving house in the Middle West. "I know there is a good deal of business there, but I don't like the idea of suggesting to a boy that we will slip him a secret commission if he will see that business comes our way. I will not be party to this common practice of sending in two bills for work done, one to be paid by the student editors, and the other to be filed with the faculty adviser, in case there is such an official." "Is there so much of that?" I asked. "Some men in our trade," he answered, "who go after that business tell me that is the only way they can get it in half the colleges they visit. Sometimes the suggestion is made by the student manager, who may be in other ways an honest fellow, but he has been told that all preceding business managers received these perquisites and that they are a legitimate return for hard work done."

Another contract that sometimes yields similar profit is that with the photographer. While such arrangements may be thoroughly honest and made in good faith, yet often they are transactions that make the concealment of financial returns too easy for poverty-stricken undergraduates. Since the annual is likely to have in it a picture of every senior, or every junior, or even every student, some photographer must be engaged to take these pictures within a limited time. It is often a difficult business to set up a studio and an appointment schedule and see that several hundred students appear on time and have their pictures taken. Some of them have not had pictures taken for several years, and would be glad of additional copies to give to their friends at graduation time. So the photographer, who has agreed to provide one picture of each student for the annual, sees the possibility of a lucrative business in individual orders from hundreds of sitters. This is so profitable that he first agrees to provide pictures for the annual for nothing; he goes further and agrees to "throw in" a number of photographs of campus scenes; finally he goes further still and agrees to give the student manager a commission on every order received for

a dozen photographs, and thus puts the manager to work drumming up trade!

Two possible situations arise from this. One is bad; the other worse. Commissions from the photographer may be a matter of common knowledge within the editorial or managerial group of students and be equally distributed, and thus profits may accrue to the editors, even though the book itself shows a net loss. Or it may be that the editor-in-chief or the business manager, or both, are the only ones to profit, without the knowledge of their fellows. That, of course, is good training in "graft."

How can I prove even to myself that these things happen generally, and are not merely a sectional condition of affairs? Only in this way. That each year at the institution where I now am, and at half a dozen others with which I am in touch, representatives of printing and engraving and "annual publishing" concerns appear yearly in such numbers that, as one of our student editors phrased it, "I wouldn't need to pay for my own dinners for a month, and I could get all the theatre tickets I wanted, and even a trip to New York, if I fell for all their stuff." Those who actually make offers of secret commissions justify themselves by saying, "There is no reason why you shouldn't do it. They do it everywhere else." So far as a photographer's commission is concerned, it is quite as legitimate, of course, for the photographer to pay this to a student manager who gets business for him as to any other salesman. The students at my own institution accepted such a commission this year for deposit to the credit of the annual. When I say that this commission would have been over \$200 if the photographer had kept his promise, one sees that the total amount of business secured by the photographer was considerable.

Please note that I have said nothing about those institutions where the college annual is carefully budgeted in advance, where students have the assistance of an expert accountant, and the benefit of the records of preceding boards, and so gain from this particular extra-curricular activity an educational experience of real value. I have not needed to

refer to them because they do not illustrate the evils of a certain sort of "student self-government"; and that is the text of this article. There are too many institutions where students are not guided or advised throughout this really difficult business enterprise. I have before me replies from a recent inquiry. Fifty per cent say, in answer to my question about the amount of money spent on the manufacture of the annual, "*We have no means of knowing, as the book is entirely under student control.*" Still more disturbing are the replies from several, that students are *required* to purchase the book, and the money is collected with other college fees, but yet no officer exercises even an advisory supervision over its disbursement. These replies throw still further light upon the sanity of this two and a half million dollar business conducted within our American colleges.

I am inserting here a few of the detailed facts obtained in my recent inquiry. Some are most creditable; some are not. Had I space for all the data secured, the sum total would prove more depressing than reassuring.

At a southern university, a "Publications Union Board" made up of three students and two faculty members controls all publications. The students are elected by popular vote. Editors of each of the four publications are elected by popular vote, but the Board selects the managers, managing editors and any other paid positions on any staff. Every student is expected to pay a publication fee of \$6 which entitles him to all four publications, including the annual. Upon application, a student may be exempt from subscribing, but few take advantage of this. Enough copies of the annual are printed to provide for all subscribing students and faculty. Surplus or unclaimed copies are turned over to the athletic association, which distributes them to high schools in the vicinity. The athletic association, fraternities, classes and all organizations are charged for write-ups. Advertising space is sold to merchants. Salaries are determined by the Publications Board and small bonuses are paid to editors for bringing the book out on schedule time and for keeping within the budget. Any surplus each year is put

into a fund under the control of the Publications Board. This fund after six years amounted to \$15,000, then was drawn upon heavily to change the newspaper from a tri-weekly to a daily and for other expenses due to the depression.

The three student publications at another southern university are under the supervision of the Board of Directors of the Student Publications, Inc., composed of six students and three faculty members appointed by the president of the university. These publications have a salaried full-time graduate manager. One central state university with an enrollment of more than 6,000 students spends from \$16,000 to \$20,000 on its annual, ordinarily has a sale of 1,600 books and charges \$5 per copy. The student editor writes, "Our book is under student control, with only very slight supervision." An urban university in one of the middle states, with an enrollment of more than 5,000 students, spends \$14,000 on its book, sells about 3,000 copies at \$5 apiece. This money is collected by the university treasurer at registration time. "The book is under student control, but we do have a faculty advisor who must O. K. anything that we do. However, we are allowed to carry on as long as we do not run over the budget." Another great urban university with an enrollment of more than 15,000 students spends only \$6,400 on its annual, and sells about 800 copies at \$4 or \$4.50 each. "Book is subject to supervision of a faculty director of publications, who drops around for a chat on occasion, but whose only act during the year has been to specify the financial requirements we must satisfy in order to publish." A middle western university under denominational control, with an enrollment of about 2,000 students, spends \$8,000 on its annual and sells about 1,400 copies at \$3.50 each. The editor writes, "Student control. Supervised only nominally by faculty." A little New England college with an enrollment of about 700 students spends \$3,700 on the annual and sells 475 copies at \$5 each. There is no faculty adviser. "Book completely under the control of editor and business manager." Another small New England college with about the same enrollment spends \$3,900 on its

annual and distributes about 600 copies to students, who have been required to purchase at \$4.50 per copy. "The book is under control of a publications board composed of three faculty, three alumni, and six undergraduate members. Questions of personnel and large expenditure are discussed and voted upon by this board. A financial secretary approves the books of the publication board once a month in order to be sure the budget is not exceeded." An eastern women's college with about 1,000 students spends less than \$1,000 on the book and sells 230 copies at \$2.50. The book is entirely under student control. Nearly all of the books above mentioned gain added income from advertising and from individuals and organizations whose pictures and "write-ups" are inserted.

The gossip of a college campus sometimes suggests student grafting when there is no real justification. Boys in college, like the boys in Army service, rather enjoy grumbling, or painting an unpleasantly distorted picture of conditions, though underneath there may be a strong sense of loyalty and a sincere optimism. One unfortunate outcome of this college annual business is that a student manager is sometimes charged with dishonesty when he is merely incompetent or inexperienced. In my inquiries among the colleges I have learned of several cases of young business managers, perhaps nineteen or twenty years old, who accepted the responsibility because it was a campus honor, and found themselves forced to handle funds amounting to five or ten thousand dollars, to keep books, make collections, pay commissions, and all the rest of it, without experience or aptitude for such a job, and with classroom work to be carried on at the same time. Such boys have left college with books unbalanced and bills unpaid, and have had the legend of graft connected with their names on that campus for some years after, though they never profited personally one cent.

At a number of colleges the book has been entirely taken over by the administration and students are required to buy it. It has become virtually a part of official advertising. At my own institution we are groping in certain directions where

others have, I am sure, led the way. The book is in student hands. But all moneys collected for it from any source are deposited with the university treasurer, subject to draft on order of the student manager; this provides a record of receipts and disbursements. By vote of the class, the juniors whose pictures appear in the book are required to purchase one copy each, and the price is collected at registration time by the treasurer with the other university fees. This provides the nucleus of a treasury. The ancient and dubious custom of taxing a campus organization for the insertion of a picture and write-up is continued, but the tax greatly reduced, looking toward eventual elimination. Advertising is carried, and the business manager estimates most conservatively the probable income from this source based on the record of previous years. Photographer's commissions are accepted and also deposited. The total is used as a budget. Competing printers are invited to make suggestions for the type and quality of book that can be made within this figure, leaving a small margin for a fixed editorial salary. Since the budget has counted only upon sales to juniors, there remains a possible margin of profit from sales to other students, and from additional advertising. A small percentage of this surplus is used to augment the editorial salaries, and the balance is deposited to the account of a permanent endowment fund for the annual.

Since this plan is a new one, those interested fully expect to alter and adjust it from time to time. It is probable that next year the requirement of junior purchase will be abandoned, and *voluntary* subscriptions be solicited from all students before registration time, by return-postcard inquiry, and these subscriptions collected by the university treasurer at the time he collects tuition and general university fees.

Throughout the year until the publication of the book the student manager has, in addition to the bookkeeping of the treasurer's office, the assistance of a business adviser appointed by the university—an expert accountant—who supervises the setting up of books, requires an audit at stated intervals, and invites consultation at any time. The student

manager may use his services just as any business man uses the services of an accountant or an attorney. At the same time the editors have at their disposal the counsel of a college officer who has had practical experience in editorial and publishing matters.

The scheme is a simple one and has the advantage of leaving initiative and direction in student hands. After the establishment of an intimate and cooperative relationship between editorial group and faculty adviser, it is possible for them to enjoy together the discomfiture of the enterprising sales representative who comes with a grafting proposition.

Whether or not the college annual will survive, or whether it will go the way of other campus traditions, such as hazing, "rushes," "step singing," and the like, remains to be seen. The present-day undergraduate is enjoying a phase of sophistication that leads him to look with scorn upon things "collegiate"; and even his college "annual" may be added to the dust-covered furniture in the attic. But while it continues as an extra-curricular activity, there is no reason why it should provide a few students, at the expense of their fellows, with nothing more than an experience in bad business methods.

LITERARY MAGAZINES

During the past two decades a surprising number of college "literary monthlies" have become insolvent. Some have been allowed to die; others have gone into receivership, the receiver being either the English Department, or the university itself, through an administrative officer, or else some campus syndicate whereby the surplus from profitable publications is conserved and used to support a weaker sister.

Various reasons have been offered by various institutions for this disappearance of student support. Local conditions are often cited. But there is a certain change of atmosphere throughout all the colleges which would tend to destroy these magazines, whatever special local conditions may exist.

The old-time cloistered character of the campus has gen-

erally departed, due in some measure to the automobile and the movies. Abandonment of social rules which emphasized the difference between town and gown is also involved. Whatever the causes, the fact is that barriers between campus and outside world have been broken down in ways that are beneficial as well as harmful. The windows of the classroom have been opened. The factories and social centers, the schools and churches of the town have become laboratories for student practice and research. As this change has come, many of the old student slogans, even some of their loyalties, have disappeared. Campus traditions have been abandoned. Old-time group-habits are now referred to scornfully as "collegiate" or "rah rah stuff." Wherever this change has come, the campus literary magazine has been forced into more direct competition with outside periodicals and it has suffered. Students who acquire the habit of reading *Harpers* and *Scribner's* and *Atlantic Monthly* and the current literary reviews (either of their own volition or because they are required to do so) find themselves testing the campus magazine by comparison with these and finding it woefully wanting. Why buy a copy of the literary monthly for 25 cents when one may get a *Saturday Evening Post*, *Colliers*, and the *Saturday Review* and pay less money for all three of them? "Loyalty to a campus institution" was the old argument. The present-day student will cheerfully abandon the institution if it does not merit loyalty, and who can say he is not following the wiser course? As one surveys the field, a very few notable examples of college magazines are to be found that have continued throughout the years and still survive largely because they are "institutions." More than balancing them are really deplorable disappearances of time-honored publications. And here and there one finds a new magazine which has sprung up, and by reason of actual merit is able to face the competition of the news stand and win student support.

In most colleges today where a literary magazine is struggling to stand solely on the infirm foundation of extreme "student self-government," better work appears in the

composition classrooms each day than is likely to appear in the student magazine in a month. Obviously cooperation between the two is indicated, as the doctors say. Where such a magazine still lives, there is often a pathetic avoidance of the obvious path to cooperation. The editors try by "scouting" and indirection to discover what good material has been handed in as class work, and then to make use of it. Sometimes by the establishment of friendly relations with instructors they try to bring about informally what might be an established and formal connection.

In several ways the student-run literary magazine must differ from the professionally conducted outside periodical, and it suffers by reason of them all.

(1) It must choose its editors from among those who have shown their interest in literary things, and the only campus way of showing interest is by writing. Yet the person with a strong impulse toward writing is often the least equipped for editing. Outside magazines do not make editors out of writers! The college magazine is too often written almost entirely by the little group which edits it, and sooner or later it becomes the expression of a small clique of writers who encourage one another in some esoteric literary cult with ideals remote from the best literary taste of the campus as a whole.

(2) Editors in the outside world plan for several issues in advance, putting authors to work on feature articles for future use; but these campus editor-authors are always living from hand to mouth, writing the next number just before it is time to go to press. Everything suffers from haste.

(3) If, on the other hand, the literary magazine attempts to discover prevailing desires of campus readers and to make itself financially successful by "giving the public what it wants," it has a harder task than any outside magazine ever faced, because its public is immature and undergoing rapid changes, especially in taste. To encourage growth is what college is for; so that the prevailing desire of today is not the desire of tomorrow.

(4) In many of those colleges where a literary magazine has died, the desire for something to take its place is strongly felt. But if the English Department issues a magazine as a sort of laboratory for writing, sustaining it by compulsory sale to students in the English courses, or by voluntary sale, meeting the deficit from the English budget, there is likely to be an academic classroom flavor to the result, which meets with student disapproval.

Cooperative effort seems to be the best answer, in this as in other campus affairs. Student initiative to establish the magazine; faculty sympathy and more than that—faculty-wide instead of merely departmental cooperation—to bring it up to the best possible standard, with prevailing student tastes and interests in mind. This means often an adjustment of classroom activities, the assignment of class work after consultation with student editors; the constant aid of the faculty business adviser in the matter of printing contracts and advertisement soliciting, even to the extent of seeing that faculty customers are found for goods taken by the advertising manager "in trade."

In some colleges the want of a publishing outlet to student literary expression is met by an occasional anthology of the best of the year's campus prose or verse. I have yet to see the loose-leaf anthology idea successfully applied, to the end that tasteful and appropriately designed covers purchased by student subscribers enclose a steadily growing anthology which may cover the four years of a student's campus residence; and include the best that has appeared, in leaflet form, throughout that period.

A few statistics may be in order. Out of seventy-five colleges and universities answering an inquiry, twenty-five report their students to be issuing a literary magazine, and eight of these are admittedly now in financial difficulties. These colleges represent all sections and are chosen from a list of the older and better endowed or supported institutions. Thirty have no literary publication whatsoever; and the remaining twenty have publications subsidized by the English Department or by the university itself which pays

the costs of the magazine and collects from a compulsory "student fee." In three cases the magazine has become a supplement of the newspaper, issued infrequently.

A majority of these magazines, whether subsidized or self-supporting, have become quarterlies rather than monthlies, and a few appear only twice or three times a year.

There is an amusing difficulty in securing data about these student enterprises from university officials. As an instance in point an executive of one of the old universities wrote that the literary magazine had an honorable and uninterrupted existence, and had never received aid from the authorities. The dean of student activities reported that this magazine had already been saved once from financial collapse due to lack of student interest and mismanagement, and that it would not be permitted to continue without a subsidy of some sort.

A few typical quotations from many detailed replies will complete my picture of present conditions:

University.—"Literary magazine is now in its seventh year. Wholly a student enterprise, not subsidized or controlled by the department or the university. It is reported to be not in a strong situation financially, having only a small circulation. Meanwhile the college daily newspaper and the college comic monthly are flourishing."

University.—"Next year three publications: one bi-weekly newspaper; a single annual; a literary magazine. We are just abandoning the experiment of trying to combine the year book and the literary publication. More truly this experiment is a transition step in getting rid of a humorous journal which had outlived its usefulness."

University.—"Two undergraduate literary magazines, not connected in any way with the Departments of the University."

University.—"Quarterly publication which has struggled painfully for about four years. Established against wish of president and advice of head of Department of English. A member of English staff acts as advisor, but his influence is rendered as nearly negligible as possible by the students themselves."

University.—"Published by a student entirely as a student enterprise. A board of student publications has some oversight of the policy of all publications and a pretty rigid control of finances. The present literary magazine has had a rather difficult past and has every promise of an equally difficult future."

University.—"Our literary magazine is completing its second year and plans to continue. It is not subsidized. An advisory board from the department of English works with the students but the magazine is supported by receipts from advertising and subscriptions. This is our third literary magazine within fifteen years. The first died a natural death; the second became a college comic and ran hopelessly into debt. The present one is paying its way only through careful financing."

University.—"Two literary magazines. One is a general publication supported by the Student Activities Fee and for several years has shown a small profit. The other is sponsored by a Literary Society, but before they go to press they are compelled to bank with us funds to cover the expenses for each issue."

University.—"Published three times a school year. The editor-in-chief is appointed by a faculty board and chooses his staff with their advice. The students are allowed to solicit subscriptions in English classes, and the money is handled by a faculty adviser. Now has a few hundred dollars in a reserve fund."

University.—"The magazine was distinctly literary as first published by the English Club. Later it was turned over to the Associated Students to publish, and they made it into a cheap humor magazine. Recently, however, those in editorial control of the magazine have decided that they must go back to something worth while in a literary way or the magazine will die."

University.—"Literary magazine published two to four times a year by the students, under control of a literary board comprised of students and faculty, but funds entirely furnished by student enterprise fee."

University.—"Entirely a student publication, run without subsidy, and under the supervision of the committee on student affairs. This publication takes the place of one defunct, heavily subsidized by the student organization and always unsuccessful. The new one has appeared only this year. It sold for fifteen cents and was simply mimeographed. The editors hope for a subsidy, but will receive one only when they have proved they have established a permanent organization."

College.—"Literary magazine financed by a tax on the student body. Most of the contributions are made by students in Advance Composition I and II. Literary magazines need not die young if the board of editors is chosen from the members of an advanced composition class each year by a teacher who prepares each incoming group for their duties. Teacher gives permanency to the magazine."

University.—"Entirely student enterprise—founded 1830—self-supporting."

University.—"Our literary magazine is got out two or three times a year, as we feel like getting it out. We who get it out are a group of

students and teachers in the department, with the teachers having the final word. Usually we publish 500 or 600 copies; these pay for themselves."

University.—"A literary magazine which leads a somewhat precarious existence and is published about twice a year. A student enterprise. Probably could not be published regularly without a subsidy."

University.—"Financed by students with some alumni aid. No university aid, not even an advertisement. At present limited to one issue each semester. Faculty aid through advisor in English department largely on the literary side. Solvent largely through efforts of one wealthy undergraduate."

University.—"Entirely a student enterprise and supported by a small appropriation from the student fees for activities. A recent movement to abolish the magazine was voted down by the students. Very little money given to the publication—only enough for two issues a year. Little good material submitted."

College.—"A literary quarterly not aided by the English Department or subsidized. Until two years ago they published a monthly, but this became too expensive. During its first year the quarterly paid for itself."

College.—"Published five times a year by a board of students and carries a subscription price of \$1.50. The magazine is self-supporting. A reserve fund, which has been built up from past profits on the sale of the magazine, takes care of any 'bad' year when a deficit might occur."

University.—"Subsidized by the College of Liberal Arts until about three years ago when it made an attempt to 'go on its own.' Since that time it has been financially more or less 'on the rocks.' Will apply for the subsidy once again."

University.—"Formerly, there were a literary magazine and a comic. The latter has absorbed the former, to the complete exclusion of all literary matter."

HUMOROUS MAGAZINES

The campus humorous magazine, popularly known as the "college comic," is no new institution. There are several such magazines with long and fairly honorable histories. But the same period which has witnessed the disappearance of their more dignified contemporaries has seen a large number of new periodicals of this type springing into existence, most of them with no literary standard to speak of, and reaching no very high level of humor or decency; and these new comics have pulled the older magazines down to their own level. The student of sociology would find ma-

terial for profitable analysis in the study of this phase of undergraduate journalism.

Professional editors who have had occasion in the past to clip jokes from exchanges will testify that some of the best were always to be found in the college magazines. This is what one should expect. The joke which arouses a laugh because of its sheer nonsense, its whimsical abandon, is more likely to come from the spontaneous overflow of spirits of the college youngster—*when he is free from self-consciousness*. The campus funny paper of twenty years ago was sure to have some outstanding bit of humor that would be quoted at once in *Life* and *Puck* and *Judge* and then find its way into the European periodicals without credit!

It must be mere coincidence that the new comic magazines came just when the literary monthlies were dying out. Some of them were nursed into existence and many were aided in establishing solvency by an unexpected foster mother. *College Humor* magazine was established in the magazine world with the frank intention of gleaning the best work of all these campus jokesmiths, and paid for the exclusive right to reprint their quips, with an additional payment for each joke reprinted.

The effect of this upon undergraduate editors was inevitable. They not only valued the subsidy, but they sought the distinction that came from the reprinting of their stuff in a professional magazine. That college comic which could boast that its jokes had been clipped most frequently by *College Humor* ranked high in the undergraduate world. Naturally there was an immediate effort to print the type of joke which was most likely to win outside attention, and the tone of the professional magazine was earnestly studied.

This statement is not to be interpreted as an attack upon the character of the outside magazine in question, which has undoubtedly earned its wide circulation. Nevertheless its influence has tended, for good or ill, to increase the self-consciousness of campus editors and change their point of view. They are no longer laughing among themselves in the pages of their campus magazines, but trying to amuse an outside public.

Perhaps the sophistication which was invading college thought would have gradually changed the tone of these campus magazines whatever else had happened, but here was an added motive compelling editors to seek the sophisticated joke, and another force to destroy that delightful lack of self-consciousness which characterized earlier campus humor.

What has been said so far is, of course, personal opinion. Let us drop theories for a moment and scrutinize this present phenomenon, the college comic.

I have before me a few specimens. At least two are current issues of magazines that have been in existence for more than a quarter of a century and are well known beyond their own student constituency. Let me tabulate their subject matter.

Exhibit	<i>Total number of separate items in contents</i>	<i>Number on subject of drunkenness and sex</i>
A.....	66	56
B.....	81	50
C.....	114	60
D.....	186	83

These figures are not assembled for the purpose of bringing up any moral issue. The question is not one of morals, but of common sense. Editors of funny papers from the beginning have discovered that variety is absolutely essential in their business. *Life* in its most prosperous days interspersed graceful "vers de societe" amid the slapstick and the nonsense, and carried on serious editorial campaigns. *Puck* in the days when it was a power carried H. C. Bunner's "Short Sixes." Every successful editor of such a paper realized that there must be some more serious background against which to flash his humor, and he knew that he could not hold to one or two subjects and continue to amuse his readers. It is hard enough for anyone to read any funny paper through from cover to cover at one sitting and gain amusement to the bitter end. If the jokes are all more or less alike, the task becomes not only painful but nauseating.

Young editors do not know this. By the time they have learned something of the psychology of it all they are through

with the task of editing and another inexperienced youngster sits behind the editorial desk. To his curiously conventional mind the introduction of serious matter into a humorous publication is a confession of weakness, and not a sign of sense. Even the temporary abandonment of either of his two major subjects, liquor and sex, may brand him as a weakling who fears the disapproval of teachers or the discipline of a dean.

In college halls where clear thinking is an objective, there is a curious confusion of mind over the terms "freedom of the press" and "censorship." It is not students alone who misunderstand these terms. Censorship means the reading of all copy before publication by some officially appointed person who has the power to stop it from going into print. He has the difficult task of determining in advance whether or not something will do harm *after* it is printed. The barring of a published magazine from the news stands because it offends a number of people, the destruction of a book because it has been deemed indecent by constituted authorities, the halting of a play by police after public complaint—none of these things is an act of censorship. They are the exercise of police power, which has existed ever since English common law took cognizance of public nuisances. No advocate of campus freedom has ever consciously insisted that students should be exempt from the laws that restrain them as citizens when they are off the campus.

As to freedom of the press, if half a dozen employees of Hygia Biscuit Company decided to bring out a little magazine under some such title as "Hygia Notes, issued from the Hygia Biscuit factory in Central City" and then proceeded to publish in it material that gave offense to any considerable number of people, or that held up to ridicule and scorn the methods of making biscuit in the home factory, their paper would be at once suppressed and no sane person would feel that the freedom of the press had been denied. The obvious course for these employees to pursue if they wish to publish such a magazine would be to detach themselves from the concern which employed them, avoid the use of its name, and then if they wished to hold it up to scorn or ridicule, do so

with full consciousness of existing laws as to libel, or police powers relating to profanity and obscenity.

What has been said above is obvious enough to any intelligent youngster. On a college campus he does not always think clearly on these two points because of a foggy atmosphere. There may be a "war on" between administrative authority and student activities of this sort. If a student can get away with something, he wins. If he fails to get away with it, he loses; and he does not always take that losing with a good grace, because if he is disciplined he may then raise a hullabaloo about "freedom."

But in such cases it is not always the student alone who is at fault. There is something absurd in the suspension of a student from classroom activities because he has not conformed to social regulations; in the imposing of academic penalties for all non-academic sins. It is as though those who set up social control over our American campuses find no effective punishment or penalty except that established by the classroom, so they borrow it for their own purposes. To produce balance, students who fail in mathematics should face social penalties and be thrown into some campus calabash, or fined. It might simplify a dean's duties if he could say to the student who gets an "E," "\$10 or ten days."

During the past few years a dozen campus "comics" have been arbitrarily suspended by university authorities. In a few cases the editors have received punishments which were academic penalties in effect, because they postponed or denied the receipt of the degree. In each of these institutions the humorous magazine had evidently long been riding to a fall. Issue after issue had contained material that was offensive to good taste, and that in a respectable outside newspaper would have brought about police action, or such municipal procedure as has finally barred several experimental magazines from the news stands in self-respecting cities. What is wrong with the situation in a university if its students can bring out a magazine month after month bearing the university name, using university property for editorial rooms and university prestige for the securing of advertising,

and the campus as a sales area, and yet maintain an editorial policy which is ever seeking to strain administrative patience, to test administrative courage, until suddenly there is an explosion, notoriety, misinterpretation and a great deal of unnecessary ill-will? The answer is that if student self-government of publications exists on one side of a dividing line, and arbitrary power on the other, the power was not exercised soon enough, and there was either lack of courage or lack of conviction. The obvious deduction is that there should be no such dividing line, no such arraying of arbitrary authority against student impulse, and that some other set-up must be arranged.

The following comment comes from the president of a small college: "I cannot understand how it is that the humorous magazine published by our students survives. It is offensive to the faculty and administration, but we have wanted so far as possible to keep hands off; and it seems to be offensive to a majority of the students, if one can believe their comments. A good many of them say that they do not want to send it home because it would create an unfair impression of student humor and student behavior. How is it, then, that the thing is able to survive?"

It survives because of the curious failure of a student body to govern itself in any broad fashion, although allowed a large measure of self-government. A student senate will decree the color of the neckties that freshmen may wear, but hesitate to disturb a group of editors in the possession of a sinecure, even though the student body as a whole is being misrepresented and exploited.

It survives, too, because it is not dependent upon student support. First, it receives a small subsidy from a professional magazine for the right to reprint its jokes. Second, it receives a subsidy from one of the large tobacco companies for the ownership of its back cover. Since the college is coeducational, that cover is used monthly to further the campaign for more smoking among women students. "Keep kissable" and other slogans are distributed in the name of the college and spread upon campus news stands. A third subsidy comes

from other national advertising. This in itself is an interesting subject and can be touched upon all too briefly here. National advertisers of breakfast foods, clothing, or toilet preparations determine upon a certain allotment for advertising among the colleges. It is too much trouble for them to make a study of the undergraduate press, its circulation, and the purchasing power of its public. So they turn the entire appropriation over to one of the two or three agencies which have sprung up to specialize in such college work. It is almost impossible for the average campus magazine to sell advertising space direct to one of the large national concerns. It must get its advertising through one of these college advertising agencies. The agent collects all moneys due, accounting to the college magazine when he sees fit; and retains 33 per cent, perhaps taking care of some other agency as well out of that fee; and he is sole arbiter as to whether or not any national advertising shall appear in that magazine.

So the perplexed college president cited above has on his campus a comic monthly issued in the name of the entire college, which may sell a very small number of copies, but yet operate at a profit.

There is no reason why any group of students shall not have the rights of citizens, subject to usual social restraints as regards libel, or profanity, or indecency, and be free to experiment with type. It is an educational experience, though expensive. But whether or not they shall put the name of the university on their printed matter is another question that can be met in a common sense way. That name is the property of a Board of Trustees or Regents. It cannot be misused, any more than one may misuse the name "General Electric Company" or "Beechnut Bacon." The campus and the buildings upon it are private property guarded by trustees, or state property under the care of regents. If student editors desire to gain the prestige of the university for their printed matter, and profit by its good will, there must be some sort of understanding as to the nature of their publication. It is perfectly reasonable to draw up an agreement somewhat as follows: The university permits the use of its

name. It allows space, rent free, as an editorial room. It allows copies of the periodical to be displayed for sale in its buildings and peddled on its grounds. It allows the managers of the publication to use the prestige of the university when soliciting advertising. It provides expert counsel whenever desired. And it agrees to answer the inquiries of merchants as to the status and responsibility of the periodical.

In return, the editors agree that they will conform to the highest standards of decency prevailing in the reputable newspapers and magazines sold in that neighborhood; that they will not deliberately attempt to destroy the good name of the institution by editorial policy; and that they will have their books always open to the inspection of a university officer so that there may be no danger of insolvency and unpaid accounts which would reflect upon the credit of the university itself. If at any time the editors are unwilling to keep their side of the agreement they have the privilege of removing the name of the university from the masthead, finding an office off the campus, and continuing the publication as a private enterprise. There is no issue of "freedom of the press" involved, or any question of academic status, if they are "up in their work." But they must play fair. They cannot *use* the university and fight it.

There may be differences of opinion as to what is a satisfactory standard of literary excellence, or just what is indecent or profane. University officers may take a narrow view, students a broad one; yet it is the officers of teaching and administration who have been asked by the trustees to determine the character and policy of the university.

But, why should it be necessary for any faculty to exercise this arbitrary authority? Attractive campus publications speak well for any university, and tact and cooperation can bring them about. A registrar can well afford to buy a quantity of each issue and mail it out to high schools. The university can well afford to purchase advertising space. The student managers might as well seek the patronage of the university as a potential advertiser and purchaser of copies, as to seek the patronage of cigarette manufacturers and a

professional comic magazine published in Chicago. The writer of this article has received many visits from young business managers who say, "Will the university take a half-page or a whole one next month, and how many copies will it buy?" There is no personal quarrel between us if it is necessary to say, "The university would rather not purchase copies of this issue. It is not particularly creditable, and would do us harm among high schools; and I think we should hardly dare have a page of university advertising in the next issue. It might be facing the sort of copy that appeared last month, and the university would be putting the seal of its approval upon that sort of humor."

Surely this relationship is better than that which results from a sudden exercise of arbitrary power by an administration which has remained aloof until printed matter became too offensive to bear. The dismissal of a student editor from a university, thereby depriving him of his degree, for acts of publication which had nothing whatever to do with his academic pursuits, seems unwise at best. The requirement that an editor should resign from his editorial position, continuing undisturbed in his academic program, seems far more reasonable and makes less of a martyr of him. If he refuses to resign, thereby serving notice that his editorial policy will continue to the detriment of the university's good name, the administration can then quite reasonably ask that its name be withdrawn, that editorial offices be established elsewhere, that advertisers be notified that the university does not endorse the paper, and that no copies be purchased or advertising space bought by the university itself. If without such support the paper can continue, the university must play fair and take no further action, leaving violation of the nuisance laws for the police to consider.

THE COLLEGE NEWSPAPER

Campus newspapers cannot be fairly tested by comparison with an outside press. The conditions under which they operate are curiously different.

In more than 50 per cent of the universities which have

both a student newspaper and a Department of Journalism there is no relationship between the two. An inquiry as to the reason for this odd state of affairs brings such replies as these from the directors of journalism:

(1) "The newspaper represents the entire university. The Department of Journalism is merely one division of study. If the university newspaper were controlled by that one department it would be constantly subject to criticism from the other schools and colleges for advertising itself overmuch. It would be so much easier for student reporters to get news from their own Journalism classes and instructors that this criticism might be justified. So we think it better for the two to be independent of one another."

(2) "The campus newspaper is student-managed, and entirely an undergraduate affair. People make allowances for its many errors on this account. But if the School of Journalism assumed control of it, it must still be the work of student amateurs. It is our business to set up an ideal newspaper in theory, and people would believe that this campus paper if published by us was a realization of that ideal. We couldn't afford it."

(3) "The students run the paper. They are jealous of their rights and do not want to have the instructors of journalism 'butting in.' In fact, we have called attention so often to errors in the campus paper that a definite antagonism has grown up and the journalism instructors are the last people on the campus they turn to for counsel." These answers give an indication of the problem on some campuses, while they also suggest that too often the counsel of cowardice prevails.

Another difficulty is even more widely prevalent. The student newspaper often is written by those of its staff least competent to write it. The directing editorships are positions of honor and profit, most earnestly sought. The editors must build up and maintain a competitive process that will weed out the unfit and bring the best men into final positions of power. To do this they invite freshmen to compete as reporters, and from among them the best are selected to

continue throughout sophomore year. These again are weeded out to make up the junior staff, and from the juniors the lucky two or three are chosen for directing positions in senior year. In many institutions the unsuccessful juniors are dropped, even though they have had three years of practical training; and if they are retained, their time is used in executive work. "Unless freshmen and sophomores do most of the writing, how is it possible for us to get enough data to determine promotions?"

Campus reporters deal with the most difficult individuals with whom any reporters ever have to deal; namely, experts and specialists jealous of their special fields of research and nervous about misquotation lest it reflect discredit upon them in the minds of fellow experts. To interview these men are sent untrained student reporters, generally freshmen or sophomores, who have not yet learned to lisp even the elementary syllables of the science about which they must ask questions.

Journalistic writing at its very best has too little in common with the style of the scientist, the research scholar, the expert. If these men make their own statements for publication these frequently cannot be reprinted just as they stand in any good newspaper. They may be overloaded with technical terms, or with petty details of importance to the scientist and of no interest to the layman. They are likely to be ponderous and even verbose. To make a presentable campus newspaper, such articles must be rewritten, and a sophomore may do the rewriting!

Campus newspapers suffer far more than professional ones from the fact that the news of interest to their constituency travels by word of mouth far faster than they do. All the important news of the campus is known throughout the dormitories before the newspaper can be printed. The population is compact, unified, generally aware of what its various parts are about, and very talkative. The college paper which fills its news pages with a rewrite of last night's lecture and announcements of tomorrow's changes of program, with news that Professor So-and-So will address the Rotary

downtown, and that Prexy has just returned from a three-days' absence and reports the alumni clubs in Hoboken, Weehaken and Hohokus all in a flourishing condition, does not find students waiting to snatch it wet from the press. On the other hand, that paper which seeks the unusual and strives to produce sensation has got to dig deep, and is sure to meet with resistance from most official news sources and to be unpopular with the authorities a great deal of the time.

Many a campus newspaper today is underwritten by the university, which wants it maintained as an announcement sheet, so a subscription fee is collected from every student. Such a newspaper cannot lose subscribers, however dull or inaccurate it may become, and editors and business managers will lack the great incentive to do good hard work.

Two final disabilities of the campus newspaper are difficult to overcome because they are the result of faults which the undergraduate borrows from models in the world outside. Campus politics are, in their small sphere, as harmful to campus institutions as city politics are to municipal government. The editorships are positions of such distinction and power in the college world that political pressure is great to secure them; and any student newspaper is fortunate which has built up so strong a tradition and so fine a loyalty to its best interests on the part of the staff that fraternity wire-pulling has no effect upon its elections.

A final handicap is that campus newspapers model themselves upon the papers in the outside world, and are as likely to copy their sins as their virtues. These youngsters do not always fairly appraise those sins of over sensationalism, news distortion, and bad habits of writing called "journalese," which are deplored by newspaper editors themselves. They are inclined to imitate the bad manners of the outside press and can scarcely be blamed for doing so. As embryo journalists they hope some day to find a good place on some outside newspaper.

College professors are a critical tribe. Perhaps it is their business to be so. They look out through campus windows and theorize about the ways of society, hoping to direct their

students into better ways. They cannot do anything about the outside press other than scold, but they can do more than scold the campus newspaper; they can punish or even abolish it, and they are tempted to abuse this power.

In thus summarizing some of the conditions which confront undergraduate journalism I have not intended to paint a gloomy picture. Few campus newspapers suffer all of these disabilities, but practically all suffer under one or two of them.

With his news page laboring under such a handicap, the campus editor seeks his great opportunity in the editorial page. If his news is too often stale by the time it is printed, he can compensate for that by making his opinion very fresh indeed. The temptation is great to attack campus institutions and personalities for the sake of sensation, to seek a "cause" which will make students eagerly read. Here he is handicapped by immaturity of judgment, lack of acquaintance with the administrative side of each campus problem, and "fouling his own nest." As I have suggested in the case of the college comic, the campus editors want to march under the banner of a free press, but they find themselves in the position described on an earlier page, of employees who choose to publish a paper bearing the corporate name and using the corporation's prestige, and then putting matter into print which would tend to harm the corporate well-being. No issue of free press is involved if they are required to stop their publication, or continue it only outside the gates, avoiding the name of the corporation on their masthead.

The young campus editor finds himself in the difficult position of wanting to attack authority and distinguish himself as a fighter for freedom, yet realizing at the same time that he is using the name and prestige of that same authority, and borrowing from it his editorial offices and sales facilities, and even his public.

Having outlined conditions that might well make any effort to establish a first-class campus newspaper seem futile, may I pay tribute to the young editors of many campus newspapers. They have advanced further in self-direction,

self-government, self-respect, than have the leaders of any other undergraduate activities in our campus nurseries. As a constructive suggestion may I append a letter addressed to the newspaper published on our own campus. It outlines in some detail the cooperative relationship which exists.

"To the Newly Elected Editors

"SIRS:

"The *Daily Orange* is a cooperative enterprise in which the administrative forces of the university and the students share authority and responsibility. This ought to be an ideal arrangement. Officials of the University underwrite the enterprise, guaranteeing a subscription list and salaries, collecting subscriptions, and meeting any deficit that may arise. The students, on the other hand, 'get out the paper'; they edit it and collect the news; they determine an editorial policy. So far as I have been able to discover, both parties to the agreement are at present content with it on this basis. Neither desires to assume the obligations and responsibilities of the other.

"When I say that the student editors should determine policy, I believe it. They should do so with common sense, and with a full recognition of the rights of their partner in the enterprise, and of the fact that their newspaper is a spokesman for the university. If they adopt an editorial policy contrary to the views of university officers, it is obviously necessary for them as editors to give also fair expression to the administration's point of view. The administration would rather not enter into printed debate with the staff of the official paper in which it holds part interest, but will fully present and discuss its own policies with them in editorial conferences *at any time*.

"It is of course understood that as an official publication the *Daily Orange* will not injure the university's good name by licentiousness, or libelous attack upon individuals, or extreme behavior such as would not be countenanced by the readers of any decent outside newspaper.

"It has not been necessary for your administrative partner to force these views upon you. You have been reasonable in discussion, and an understanding between us has never been difficult. I have heard it stated that there is not a free press here; that if, for instance, anyone wished to attack the R. O. T. C., or the Y. M. C. A., or the Athletic Association, or the teaching of Bee Culture through its columns, that would

not be permitted. In the past such controversies got into type and sometimes deteriorated, resulting in irresponsible letters to the editor which in an outside paper would have been considered libelous, or beneath newspaper dignity. But even then no arbitrary commands were issued by one partner upon the other. We urged a policy of firm editorial control over the dignity of your columns, with a *restatement in your own words* of any point of view that, although couched in unsuitable terms, seemed to deserve a hearing.

"There is no censorship of the student press at Syracuse University. Censorship means a submission of material before publication to some individual with power to edit or destroy it. Obviously the university authorities do possess such a right, but they do not exercise it, and have no desire to do so. The abuse of freedom by an outside press is punished by libel suits in individual cases, or by proper police action, or by the closing of the mails by postal authorities. I am confident that the time has arrived on this campus when an appeal to student opinion may protect the university from the serious abuse of a free press.

"But there is one problem of adjustment that is still unsolved. As an official bulletin of the university you are under obligation to print official announcements. Otherwise the university would have to issue a competing announcement bulletin of its own. This does not mean that you are obliged to print in full every faculty communication, any more than every student communication, or to support editorially any announcement. Your space is limited and matter of least importance must yield place. Who is to determine relative importance? So long as you are the editors, you must. But you lay yourselves open to just criticism if you refuse communications of local import, and at the same time fill space with syndicated matter and outside fillers.

"For your every effort to develop an honest and independent newspaper which recognizes all obligations, including its first obligation to the truth, you deserve praise; for errors due to an inadequate physical equipment you deserve sympathy; for errors due to inexperience you are entitled to sympathetic help from everyone; and only for such mistakes as are due to carelessness, laziness, or unworthy motive, are you entitled to censure."

BURGES JOHNSON,
Syracuse University.

The 1932 College Sophomore Testing Program

A REPORT BY THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE TESTING

IN THE proposal for its first testing project, the committee promised to report to each participating college the scores of its own students and the results for all other colleges combined. The first part of this report was sent to the colleges in June; the second part is included herewith.

The organization of the Advisory Committee and the definitions of its functions have grown out of the discussions and actions reviewed by Dean H. E. Hawkes ("The Cooperative Test Service," EDUCATIONAL RECORD, January, 1931). "At the meeting of the Central Committee of the Committee on Personnel Methods of the American Council on Education held at Indianapolis on January 31, 1931, 'on motion *it was voted* that an advisory committee be appointed to advise the Central Committee regarding the college testing program of the Cooperative Test Service; that the committee be requested to study the sophomore examination and to advise the Central Committee regarding the use of this examination in a wider area.'"

I

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This committee found the ground well prepared for it. The Cooperative Test Service offered the necessary technical adjunct; its Director, Dr. Ben D. Wood, not only lectured extensively before organized groups of test-makers, conferences, association meetings, and college faculties, but also supervised the construction of tests which the committee now offers as part of a coordinated series of projects. Regarding the sophomore testing program of the past year, the committee is most indebted to the Carnegie Foundation for

supplying the test and to Dr. W. S. Learned and Dr. Henry Suzzallo for assistance in planning. The Foundation gave gratuitously an elaborate and carefully constructed test which had yielded satisfactory results in the Pennsylvania colleges. It also gave the committee the full benefit of its pioneer experience in administering objective, comprehensive tests, an experience indispensable for further efforts in this field. Additionally, the Foundation brought four California institutions into the program in connection with its study there.

The committee's reports could not have been so prompt without the help of Mr. T. J. Watson, President of the International Business Machines Corporation, who provided the tabulating machines used in recording and analyzing the data. The Educational Records Bureau took charge of shipping, receiving, and scoring the tests and making the initial report. Dr. G. M. Ruch generously undertook to supervise the scoring of the tests for the California colleges, and Dr. E. F. Lindquist supervised the scoring of the tests for the University of Iowa. It was intended to have all the scoring done at Iowa City because of its central location, but the Iowa academic contest program made this impossible.

At its meeting in Cincinnati in July, the committee profited from the discussion and proposals submitted by the following guests: Dr. D. A. Prescott of the General Education Board, Dean G. F. Kay of the University of Iowa, Dr. H. H. Remmers representing President E. C. Elliott of Purdue University, Dean J. J. Oppenheimer of the University of Louisville, Dr. R. W. Tyler of Ohio State University, and Mr. F. S. Beers of the University of Minnesota.

II

PURPOSE OF THE PROJECT

The results given below may well be read in the light of the objectives stated in the committee's original proposal.¹ "Certain advantages appear from a cooperative program in numerous colleges. . . . The main purpose of the tests is to throw light on the capacities, needs and problems of individuals

¹ THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD, July, 1931.

rather than to furnish a basis for institutional comparisons. The results of the testing program here suggested may, when announced, throw light on the selection of students and the conditions affecting the selection; on the response of students to the formal and informal facilities for cultivation offered by the college; on the relative effectiveness of instruction in departments; on the importance of various factors influencing student performance: age, home and social conditions, previous school training, scholastic and vocational aims, extra-curricular interests, faculty counsel, and the like.

"However, tests which furnish comparable data on students from different colleges are capable of many constructive uses. Giving the same tests in many institutions helps to promote intellectual interests among the students. They find here an intercollegiate and interclass competition of a new sort, an intellectual competition. Tests in the construction and administration of which many colleges have cooperated are superior in general interest and validity to those prepared in one institution for its own situation. On the results of such tests colleges may feel greater certainty in giving to individual students who are outstanding more rapid advancement than their fellows, or recognition may be given for work which they have done by themselves outside of class.

"The results of the tests given in the Pennsylvania colleges warrant the expectation that colleges generally could profit from a similar program. The use of such tests would yield much information which the colleges would find useful in developing and improving their educational procedures. Therefore this committee desires to see an experimental co-operative testing program inaugurated by the largest possible number of colleges throughout the country in 1932."

For this purpose the committee selected certain sections from the test used for sophomores in the Pennsylvania Study: Intelligence, General Culture, General Science, and English.

"The interpretation of the data and any conclusions affecting college policies will rest with the colleges themselves. The data derived from any large testing program inevitably raise questions regarding most of the conditions and influences

which may contribute to the development of the student through his college years. Such data, interpreted in the light of all the facts and with the insight of those most intimately concerned and of those most widely experienced, can scarcely fail to furnish the colleges with important evidence as to the most promising policies to be pursued.

"Following the study of the results of these tests, each college will be in a position to consider whether worth-while helps in its work can probably be secured from: (a) repeating the same tests in successive years, (b) using the new comparable tests now being prepared by the Cooperative Test Service under the auspices of the American Council on Education, or (c) using other tests or examinations of other types. It is expected that some of the new comparable tests will be ready for preliminary use during the academic year 1932-1933. The greatest interest of the committee in the proposed experiment is to demonstrate whether such a widespread cooperation among colleges is feasible and whether the individual colleges secure information of such value that they will wish to continue some similar program."

III

PROCEDURE

The plan was to offer to liberal colleges, teachers colleges, and junior colleges throughout the country a selection of general tests for sophomores. An original typewritten letter signed by the chairman of the committee was addressed in May, 1931, to the president of each of 1,292 institutions. Of this number 15 were reported as no longer in operation, 6 offered either graduate or sub-collegiate work, and 2 had merged with other colleges; 559 replied to the first or some later communication, 320 declared an active interest in the proposed testing program, 37 stated that the program did not suit their needs, 167 stated that they would like to cooperate but were unable to do so for lack of funds on account of the financial depression, 208 signified their intention to participate, 67 withdrew shortly before time for the testing because of financial limitations, and 140 did participate in the tests.

The 140 participating institutions with their branches included 101 colleges of liberal arts, 24 teachers colleges or teachers training departments, 17 junior colleges, 2 agricultural colleges, and 5 engineering colleges. The number of students who took the test in liberal colleges was 12,386, in teachers colleges, 3,110, in junior colleges, 1,834, in agricultural colleges, 450, in engineering colleges, 354. Totals: institutions 140, students 18,134, sophomores 16,411, number of states represented 38. All the sophomores tested were in 138 of the 140 participating institutions, and 15,643 sophomores had sufficiently complete test records to be included in the national tables reported in Section IV below.

There has been very gratifying agreement in the general attitude of colleges toward the proposed tests. Only three expressed any opposition or disagreement as to the value of such testing procedures. A few stated that they had already as large a program of this kind as they could carry. The majority of all replies expressed an interest in the tests and the hope that the institution could participate another year if not this one.

Second and third notices were sent to the institutions which did not reply and follow-up letters to those which showed an interest.

Detailed directions were mailed to the participating colleges describing the administration of the tests and specifying the data which the schools were to supply. In only a few cases was there confusion or delay; the accuracy and promptness with which the colleges followed the directions made possible the early return of the preliminary reports.

A list of the participating colleges follows:

Alabama: Alabama College, Birmingham-Southern College, Judson College; **Arizona:** Arizona State Teachers College; **California:** Antelope Valley Joint Union Junior College, Fresno State College, Marin Junior College, Mills College, Pasadena Junior College, St. Mary's College, San Diego State College, San Francisco State Teachers College, University of California, University of Redlands; **Colorado:** Colorado College, Colorado State Teachers College, State Agricultural College, University of Denver; **Connecticut:** Bridgeport Normal School, Connecticut College, New

Britain Normal School; **District of Columbia:** Mt. Vernon Seminary, Trinity College; **Florida:** Rollins College; **Georgia:** Agnes Scott College, Emory University, Shorter College; **Illinois:** Augustana College, Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Chicago Normal College, Lake Forest College, MacMurray College, National College of Education, Rockford College, St. Xavier College for Women, Wheaton College; **Indiana:** St. Mary-of-the-Woods College; **Iowa:** Centerville Junior College, Graceland College, Ottumwa Heights College, Parsons College, St. Ambrose College, State University of Iowa, Wartburg College, Wartburg Normal College; **Kansas:** St. John's College, Washburn College; **Kentucky:** Berea College, Caney Junior College, Centre College, University of Louisville; **Louisiana:** Southwestern Louisiana Institute, **Maine:** Colby College; **Maryland:** Goucher College, St. Mary's Female Seminary, Washington College, Western Maryland College; **Michigan:** Ferris Institute, Michigan State College; **Minnesota:** Augsburg College, Bethany Lutheran College, Carleton College, College of St. Catherine, College of St. Scholastica, College of St. Thomas, Concordia College, Ely Junior College, Gustavus Adolphus College, Hamline University, Hibbing Junior College, Itasca Junior College, Macalester College, St. John's University, St. Olaf College, St. Paul-Luther College, University of Minnesota, Virginia Junior College, Winona State Teachers College; **Mississippi:** All Saints' Junior College, Millsaps College; **Missouri:** Central Missouri State Teachers College, Christian College, Cottey Junior College, Junior College of Kansas City, Northeast High School of Kansas City, Kemper Military School, Park College, Stephens College, Teachers College of Kansas City, Wentworth Military Academy; **Montana:** University of Montana; **Nebraska:** Dana College, Hebron Junior College; **New Jersey:** Brothers College, College of St. Elizabeth, New Jersey College for Women, New Jersey State Normal School, State Teachers College; **New Mexico:** University of New Mexico; **New York:** College of New Rochelle, Elmira College, New York State College for Teachers, Sarah Lawrence College, Seth Low Junior College, University of Buffalo; **North Carolina:** Bennett College for Women, Johnson C. Smith University, North Carolina College for Negroes, St. Genevieve-of-the-Pines, University of North Carolina; **Ohio:** Antioch College, Capital University, Mt. Union College, Western College for Women, Wilberforce University, Wittenberg College; **Oklahoma:** Muskogee Junior College, University of Tulsa; **Oregon:** Pacific College, Reed College, Southern Oregon Normal School, Willamette

University; **Pennsylvania**: St. John Kanty College, St. Thomas College; **Rhode Island**: Rhode Island State College; **South Carolina**: Claflin College; **Tennessee**: Fisk University; Southwestern University, Tusculum College, University of Chattanooga, Vanderbilt University, Ward-Belmont School; **Texas**: Lutheran College, Texas Christian University; **Virginia**: Hollins College, Sweet Briar College; **Washington**: Washington State Normal School; **West Virginia**: Bethany College, Salem College, Storer College; **Wisconsin**: Carroll College.

The tests from all colleges except five were scored by the Educational Records Bureau in New York City, and individual scores were reported to the colleges within three weeks after the tests were received. Tabulation of the data was done at the Columbia University Statistical Bureau. The primary purpose was to secure national percentiles for individual guidance. It was not the purpose of the committee to make a complete college-by-college analysis of the results, but only to make such general statistical summaries as seemed to be of common interest and within the resources of the committee. The detailed analysis of the results was left to the college itself, as indicated previously.

IV

RESULTS OF THE COLLEGE TESTING PROGRAM, MAY, 1932

The college sophomore examination used in this program consisted of three parts:

1. The Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Higher Examination, Form C, 75 items, 30 minutes.
2. A comprehensive English examination prepared by the Carnegie Foundation for use in the Pennsylvania Study, including sections on spelling (50 items), grammar (50 items), punctuation (50 items), vocabulary (100 items), and literary acquaintance (200 items); two hours.
3. A general culture examination, also prepared by the Carnegie Foundation for use in the Pennsylvania Study, including four parts: (1) foreign literature, 333 items, 60 minutes; (2) fine arts, 252 items, 50 minutes; (3) history and social studies, 344 items, 70 minutes; (4) general science, 292 items, 60 minutes.

The English and general culture tests were kindly donated to the committee by the Carnegie Foundation. The intelligence test and the first three parts of the general culture test were administered on May 3, and the general science and English tests were administered on May 4. In addition to the tests named above, a professional education test, also donated by the Carnegie Foundation, was given in seven teacher training institutions which also gave the tests mentioned above.

In this report, the results of the few simple tabulations that have been made will be presented very briefly, with a minimum of interpretation and comment. For the sake of brevity, the tabulations are presented and discussed without reservations regarding the validity of the tests, but the reader should remember throughout that the committee is conscious of the shortcomings of the tests used.

As already indicated on preceding pages, the detailed analysis of the results of the tests for each college was left to those most conversant with the local situation and those who are, therefore, most able to make useful analyses—the officers in each college. In the view of the committee, the results of the tests will be valuable to the extent that such results are analyzed in the light of local conditions, and to the extent that the results of such analyses are brought to bear upon the fundamental problem of vouchsafing to each individual student a more effective type of educational guidance. From this viewpoint, the most important part of this section of the report will be Table 1 (pages 298-301), since this table will enable each institution to interpret the score of each student on each part of each test in terms of national percentiles. From the viewpoint of the committee, such study of individual students is vastly more important for education than the comparisons of institutions, types of institutions, degree groups, and classes, made below. The committee hopes that the large amount of space necessarily taken by even a brief presentation of such comparative data will not raise them in the eyes of any reader from the subordinate position which they occupy in the committee's whole program.

TABLE 1. National sigma and percentile scales for the college sophomore tests given in May, 1932, to 15,643 sophomores in 138 colleges in 38 states. The scales are based upon returns from all sophomores, regardless of curricular division and type of institution. The percentile scale for each variable is derived from the sigma scale, but since the distributions are all approximately normal, the values in these percentile scales approximate "true" percentiles closely enough for the practical purposes which it is hoped this table will serve.

Sigma Score (In tenths of sigma) $M = 50$	Pctl.	Mean σ N	Engl. Grade 5.42 1.79 13,892	Total Grade 5.43 1.54 14,108	Age 20.23 2.07 14,647	Intelli- gence 53.39 10.45 15,327	Total English 200.85 57.5 15,643
74	99.2		9.0	25.3			336-341
73	98.9		9.0	25.1			331-335
72	98.6		8.9	24.9			325-330
71	98.2		8.7	24.7	75		319-324
70	97.7	9.0	8.6	24.5	74		313-318
69	97.1	8.9	8.4	24.3	73		308-312
68	96.4	8.7	8.3	24.1	72		302-307
67	95.5	8.5	8.1	23.9	71		296-301
66	94.5	8.4	8.0	23.7	70		290-295
65	93.2	8.2	7.8	23.5	69		285-289
64	91.9	8.0	7.7	23.2	68		279-284
63	90.3	7.8	7.5	23.0	67		273-278
62	88.5	7.7	7.4	22.8	65-66		267-272
61	86.4	7.5	7.2	22.6	64		262-266
60	84.1	7.3	7.1	22.4	63		256-261
59	81.6	7.1	6.9	22.2	62		250-255
58	78.8	6.9	6.7	22.0	61		244-249
57	75.8	6.8	6.6	21.8	60		239-243
56	72.6	6.6	6.4	21.6	59		233-238
55	69.2	6.4	6.3	21.4	58		227-232
54	65.5	6.2	6.1	21.2	57		221-226
53	61.8	6.1	6.0	21.0	56		216-220
52	57.9	5.9	5.8	20.8	55		210-215
51	54.0	5.7	5.7	20.5	54		204-209
50	50.0	5.5	5.5	20.3	53		198-203
49	46.0	5.3	5.4	20.1	52		193-197
48	42.1	5.2	5.2	19.9	51		187-192
47	38.2	5.0	5.1	19.7	50		181-186
46	34.5	4.8	4.9	19.5	49		175-180
45	30.8	4.6	4.7	19.3	48		170-174
44	27.4	4.4	4.6	19.1	47		164-169
43	24.2	4.3	4.4	18.9	46		158-163
42	21.2	4.1	4.3	18.7	45		150-157
41	18.4	3.9	4.1	18.5	43-44		147-151
40	15.0	3.7	4.0	18.3	42		141-146
39	13.6	3.5	3.8	18.1	41		135-140
38	11.5	3.4	3.7	17.9	40		129-134
37	9.7	3.2	3.5	17.6	39		124-128
36	8.1	3.0	3.4	17.4	38		118-123
35	6.7	2.8	3.2	17.2	37		112-117
34	5.5	2.6	3.1	17.0	36		106-111
33	4.5	2.5	2.9	16.8	35		101-105
32	3.6	2.3	2.7	16.6	34		95-100
31	2.9	2.1	2.6	16.4	33		89-94
30	2.3	1.9	2.4	16.2	32		83-88
29	1.8	1.8	2.3	16.0	31		78-82
28	1.4	1.6	2.1	15.8	30		72-77
27	1.1	1.4	2.0	15.6	29		66-71
26	.8	1.2	1.8	15.4	28		60-55
25	.6	1.0	1.7	15.1	27		55-59

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Sigma Score (In tenths of sigma)	Pctl.	Mean \bar{x} N	English Scores				
			Spelling	Grammar	Punc.	Vocab.	Literature
			26.57 11.08 15,643	27.26 9.53 15,643	27.15 8.63 15,643	52.99 17.90 15,643	67.34 23.9 15,643
74	99.2	50	48	95-96	124-125	
73	98.9	49	47	93-94	122-123	
72	98.6	50	48	46	91-92	119-121	
71	98.2	49	47	45	90	117-118	
70	97.7	48	46	44	88-89	114-116	
69	97.1	47	45	43	86-87	112-113	
68	96.4	46	44	43	84-85	110-111	
67	95.5	45	43	42	83	107-109	
66	94.5	44	42	41	81-82	105-106	
65	93.2	43	42	40	79-80	103-104	
64	91.9	42	41	39	77-78	100-102	
63	90.3	41	40	38	75-76	98-99	
62	88.5	39-40	39	37	74	95-97	
61	86.4	38	38	37	72-73	93-94	
60	84.1	37	37	36	70-71	91-92	
59	81.6	36	36	35	68-69	88-90	
58	78.8	35	35	34	66-67	86-87	
57	75.8	34	34	33	65	83-85	
56	72.6	33	33	32	63-64	81-82	
55	69.2	32	32	31	61-62	79-80	
54	65.5	30-31	31	31	59-60	76-78	
53	61.8	29	30	30	57-58	74-75	
52	57.9	28	29	29	56	71-73	
51	54.0	27	28	28	54-55	69-70	
50	50.0	26	27	27	52-53	67-68	
49	46.0	25	26	26	50-51	64-66	
48	42.1	24	25	25	49	62-63	
47	38.2	23	24	25	47-48	59-61	
46	34.5	22	23	24	45-46	57-58	
45	30.8	20-21	22	23	43-44	55-56	
44	27.4	19	22	22	41-42	52-54	
43	24.2	18	21	21	40	50-51	
42	21.2	17	20	20	38-39	48-49	
41	18.4	16	19	19	36-37	45-47	
40	15.0	15	18	18	34-35	43-44	
39	13.6	14	17	18	32-33	40-42	
38	11.5	13	16	17	31	38-39	
37	9.7	12	15	16	29-30	36-37	
36	8.1	11	14	15	27-28	33-35	
35	6.7	10	13	14	25-26	31-32	
34	5.5	8-9	12	13	23-24	28-30	
33	4.5	7	11	12	22	26-27	
32	3.6	6	10	12	20-21	24-25	
31	2.9	5	9	11	18-19	21-23	
30	2.3	4	8	10	16-17	19-20	
29	1.8	3	7	9	15	16-18	
28	1.4	2	6	7	13-14	14-15	
27	1.1	1	5	7	11-12	12-13	
26	.8	4	6	9-10	9-11	
25	.6	3	6	7-8	7-8	

Sigma Score (In tenths of sigma)	Pctl.	Mean σ N	General Culture			
			Foreign Lit. 45.69 26.09 15,643	Fine Arts 52.79 24.27 15,643	History 76.04 37.78 15,643	General Science 87.79 34.18 15,643
74	99.2		108-110	110-112	165-168	169-171
73	98.9		105-107	108-109	162-164	165-168
72	98.6		103-104	105-107	158-161	162-164
71	98.2		100-102	103-104	154-157	158-161
70	97.7		98-99	101-102	150-153	155-157
69	97.1		95-97	98-100	146-149	152-154
68	96.4		92-94	96-97	143-145	148-151
67	95.5		90-91	93-95	139-142	145-147
66	94.5		87-89	91-92	135-138	141-144
65	93.2		85-86	88-90	131-134	138-140
64	91.9		82-84	86-87	128-130	134-137
63	90.3		79-81	84-85	124-127	131-133
62	88.5		77-78	81-83	120-123	128-130
61	86.4		74-76	79-80	116-119	124-127
60	84.1		72-73	76-78	112-115	121-123
59	81.6		69-71	74-75	109-111	117-120
58	78.8		66-68	71-73	105-108	114-116
57	75.8		64-65	69-70	101-104	111-113
56	72.6		61-63	67-68	97-100	107-110
55	69.2		58-60	64-66	94-96	104-106
54	65.5		56-57	62-63	90-93	100-103
53	61.8		53-55	59-61	86-89	97-99
52	57.9		51-52	57-58	82-85	93-96
51	54.0		48-50	55-56	78-81	90-92
50	50.0		45-47	52-54	75-77	87-89
49	46.0		43-44	50-51	71-74	83-86
48	42.1		40-42	47-49	67-70	80-82
47	38.2		38-39	45-46	63-66	76-79
46	34.5		35-37	42-44	60-62	73-75
45	30.8		32-34	40-41	56-59	69-72
44	27.4		30-31	38-39	52-55	66-68
43	24.2		27-29	35-37	48-51	63-65
42	21.2		25-26	33-34	44-47	59-62
41	18.4		22-24	30-32	41-43	56-58
40	15.0		19-21	28-29	37-40	52-55
39	13.6		17-18	25-27	33-36	49-51
38	11.5		14-16	23-24	29-32	46-48
37	9.7		12-13	21-22	26-28	42-45
36	8.1		9-11	18-20	22-25	39-41
35	6.7		6-8	16-17	18-21	35-38
34	5.5		4-5	13-15	14-17	32-34
33	4.5		0-3	11-12	10-13	28-31
32	3.6			8-10	7-9	25-27
31	2.9			6-7	3-6	22-24
30	2.3			4-5	0-2	18-21
29	1.8			0-3		15-17
28	1.4					11-14
27	1.1					8-10
26	.8					5-7
25	.6					0-4

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Sigma Score (In tenths of sigma)	Pctl.		Total General Culture	English and Gen. Cult. (Excl. Gen. Science)	Gen. Score (Eng. and To- tal Gen. Cult., Incl. Gen. Sci.)	Education
		Mean σ N	261.34 93.34 15,643	374.99 122.75 15,643	463.80 139.96 15,020	240.16 62.65 782
74	99.2		482-490	664-675	793-806	388-393
73	98.9		472-481	652-663	779-792	382-387
72	98.6		463-471	639-651	765-778	375-381
71	98.2		454-462	627-638	751-764	369-374
70	97.7		444-453	615-626	737-750	363-368
69	97.1		435-443	603-614	723-736	357-362
68	96.4		426-434	590-602	709-722	350-356
67	95.5		416-425	578-589	695-708	344-349
66	94.5		407-415	566-577	681-694	338-343
65	93.2		398-406	553-565	667-680	332-337
64	91.9		388-397	541-552	653-666	325-331
63	90.3		379-387	529-540	639-652	319-324
62	88.5		370-378	517-528	625-638	313-318
61	86.4		360-369	504-516	611-624	306-312
60	84.1		351-359	492-503	597-610	300-305
59	81.6		342-350	480-491	583-596	294-299
58	78.8		332-341	468-479	569-582	288-293
57	75.8		323-331	455-467	555-568	281-287
56	72.6		314-322	443-454	541-554	275-280
55	69.2		304-313	431-442	527-540	269-274
54	65.5		295-303	418-430	513-526	263-268
53	61.8		286-294	406-417	499-512	256-262
52	57.9		276-285	394-405	485-498	250-255
51	54.0		267-275	382-393	471-484	244-249
50	50.0		258-266	369-381	457-470	238-243
49	46.0		248-257	357-368	443-456	231-237
48	42.1		239-247	345-356	429-442	225-230
47	38.2		230-238	333-344	415-428	219-224
46	34.5		220-229	320-332	401-414	212-218
45	30.8		211-219	308-319	387-400	206-211
44	27.4		202-210	296-307	373-386	200-205
43	24.2		192-201	283-295	359-372	194-199
42	21.2		183-191	271-282	345-358	187-193
41	18.4		174-182	259-270	331-344	181-186
40	15.0		164-173	247-258	317-330	175-180
39	13.6		155-163	234-246	303-316	169-174
38	11.5		146-154	222-233	289-302	162-168
37	9.7		136-145	210-221	275-288	156-161
36	8.1		127-135	198-209	261-274	150-155
35	6.7		118-126	185-197	247-260	144-149
34	5.5		108-117	173-184	233-246	137-143
33	4.5		99-107	161-172	219-232	131-136
32	3.6		90-98	148-160	205-218	125-130
31	2.9		80-89	136-147	191-204	118-124
30	2.3		71-79	124-135	177-190	112-117
29	1.8		62-70	112-123	163-176	106-111
28	1.4		52-61	99-111	149-162	100-105
27	1.1		43-51	87-98	135-148	93-99
26	.8		34-42	75-86	121-134	87-92
25	6		24-33	62-74	107-120	81-86

National Sigma and Percentile Scales. In consonance with this view, the national sigma and percentile scales are presented in Table 1. This table will enable each college to determine the national standing of each student who took the test. In view of the large differences among colleges, it may be more convenient for purposes of local analysis for each college to construct similar scales based entirely on local returns. This suggestion is made particularly to those colleges whose averages are far from the national average, since colleges at or near the national average may use the national scales without serious distortion of individual records. This table shows national sigma and percentile scores for each test and for several combinations of tests of the college sophomore examination given in May, 1932.

The data on college English grades, total college grades, and chronological age were obtained from the registrars of the participating colleges, in accordance with the following directions:

In addition to the names of the students we are requesting that you indicate the sex, age in years at last birthday, and the average college grade in English, and the average college grade in all subjects, including English. These average grades should be based upon all grades that are on the official records of the registrar's office at the time this form is filled out. This means that the averages will not include grades for the current semester unless the mid-semester marks are available when this form is filled out.

It is requested that in reporting the average grades in English and in all college classes, Code A (on the following page) be used. This code is necessary because different institutions use different symbols for grades, some using letter grades, A-B-C-D-F or E-G-F-P, etc., and some using percentages. In order to maintain comparability as far as possible among the grades for different institutions it is requested that you transmute whatever system of grades you use into marks of Excellent, Good, Fair, Poor, and Probation. In some institutions only students who receive 95 or above may be considered excellent. In other institutions a student receiving an average of 85 may be considered excellent. The intermediate points in the code, namely, 2, 4, 6, and 8, are provided in order to permit adjustments in cases in which there

is some doubt regarding the group in which the student's average places him.

Code A	Average English and Total Grades
9	Excellent
8	
7	Good
6	
5	Fair
4	
3	Poor
2	
1	Probational or failing

By agreement with the participating colleges the committee's first report to the colleges included for each student taking the test his 'general score' made up of his scores on all parts of the test except the intelligence test. Since there is abundant evidence that the general science test is not homogeneous with the other tests, and since for guidance purposes a homogeneous score is desirable, Table 1 includes a percentile scale for scores made up of the total English test plus the first three parts of the general culture test. Throughout this report we shall refer to the English plus general culture score as meaning the sum of the English test score and of the scores on the first three parts of the general culture test.

It was part of the original plan of the committee that the results of the sophomore test would be used in combination with other available information in the practical work of advising students concerning their further education. Several colleges have already reported to the committee that the results of the sophomore examination enabled them to identify the students most in need of special study and counsel. In several cases, students have been advised not to enter the senior college. In other cases, the sources of remediable maladjustments have been detected and special arrangements have been made with a view to overcoming the student's difficulties. In still other cases, plans are being considered for giving special opportunity and freedom to develop their talents to students with very high records on the test.

Variability of Intelligence and Achievement. Chart 1 shows two types of variability; the first is the variability of average scores of different colleges, and the second is the educationally more significant variability of scores of students in individual colleges. While both types of variability indicate the great need for more adequate educational guidance of students, both before and after reaching college, the second type more particularly defines the immediate opportunity of the colleges to serve those young people who have already been admitted to college, and also, in cooperation with the secondary schools, to serve similar groups of young people who are planning, often unwisely, to come to college.

The differences among the 138 colleges whose sophomores participated in this program, as indicated by the differences displayed on Chart 1, are very large indeed, if the results of the English and general culture sections of the sophomore examination mean anything at all. While it is clear that the sophomore examination or any other similar examination cannot remotely measure all of the desirable outcomes of two years in college, the experience of the last decade with objective tests of the sort here used, and our own studies reported later in this section, indicate conclusively that such test results are positively correlated with several of the expected outcomes of college and secondary education. The English and general culture tests on which Chart 1 is based aggregate something over 1,300 questions. On these 1,300-odd questions, four of the 138 participating colleges achieved average scores which are more than one standard deviation above the national average; that is, more than one-half of the students in these colleges are in the highest fifteen per cent of the national group. In two of these colleges, approximately three-fourths of the sophomores are in the highest fifteen per cent of the national group. At the other end of the scale there are half a dozen colleges whose averages are more than one standard deviation below the national average. In one or two of these institutions, about eighty per cent of the sophomores are in the lowest fifteen per cent of the national group. So far as the functions measured by the

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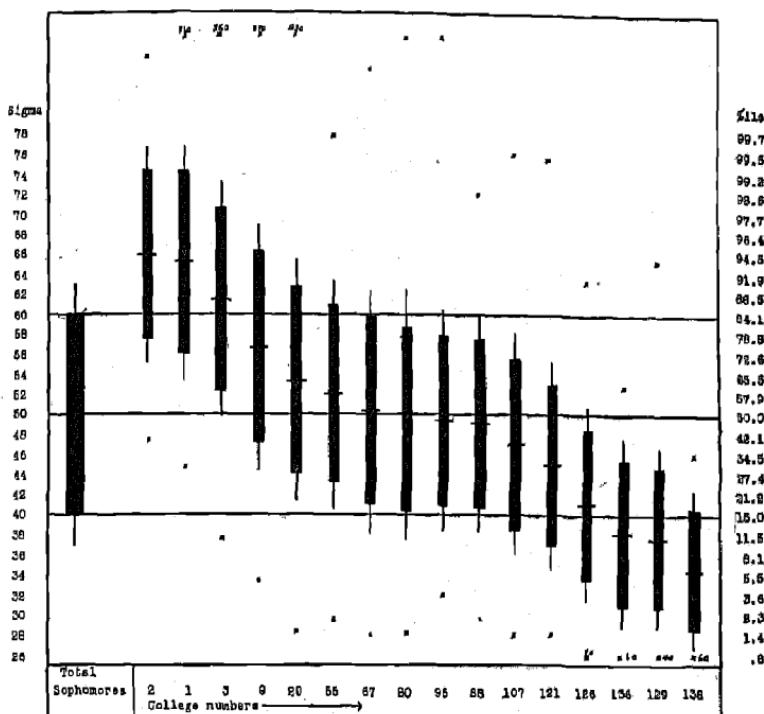


CHART 1.—Variability of achievement in participating colleges as measured by the combined score on the English test and on the three non-science sections of the general culture test.

The middle horizontal line shows the national average, and the other two are one sigma above and below the national average. The first vertical bar represents the national group of 15,643 sophomores from 138 colleges, and each of the other bars represents an individual college. The heavy portion of each bar represents the range of scores of the middle two-thirds of the sophomores in each college. The narrow lines at the ends extend down to the tenth percentile and up to the ninetieth percentile. The crosses below the bars represent the lowest scores and those above represent the highest scores in the several colleges. Extreme scores that run off the chart above or below are indicated by crosses accompanied by raw scores. The short cross line at the middle of each bar represents the average score of the college.

Vertical distance on the chart is in terms of the national standard deviation as shown by the sigma score scale at the extreme left, in which 50 represents the national mean. Approximate percentiles corresponding to each sigma point are shown at the right.

The sixteen colleges here chosen to represent the one hundred and thirty-eight that participated are identified by numbers assigned according to the rank of each college's average general score; i. e., the average score on the combined English and total general culture tests (including general science). All types of institutions are represented in the sixteen, the only principle of selection here being that of representing the whole range of college averages by approximately equal steps from highest to lowest.

English and general culture tests are concerned, this latter group of colleges has almost nothing in common with the three or four colleges at the high end of the scale. In one group of colleges more than 90 per cent of the sophomores are distinctly above the national average; in the other more than ninety per cent are below the national average.

These indications are confirmed by similar indications from every section of the sophomore examination. This is notably the case with the returns from the English test, which includes sections on spelling, grammar, punctuation, vocabulary, and literary acquaintance. The relations set forth in Chart 2

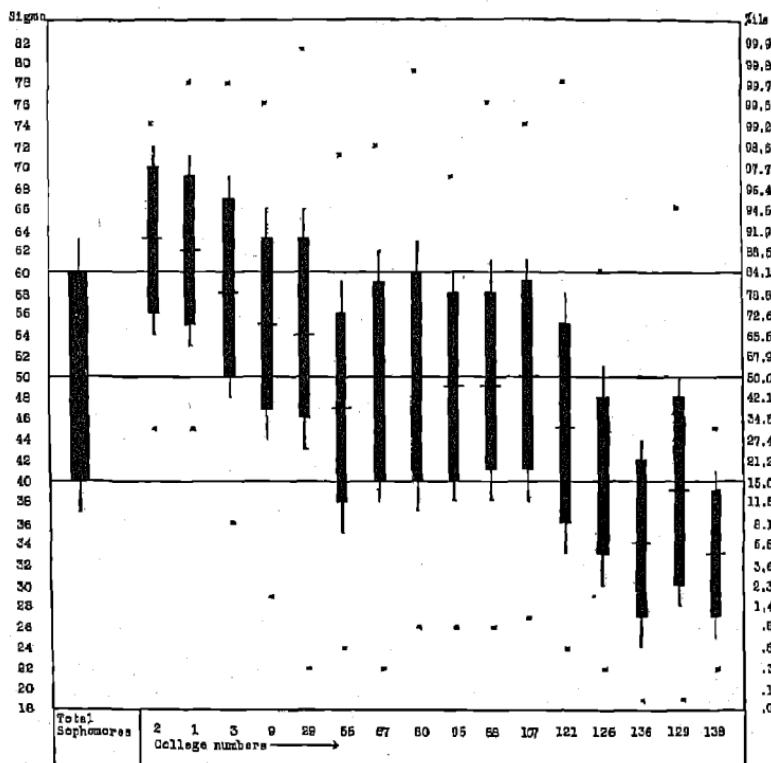


CHART 2.—Variability of achievement in participating colleges as measured by the total English test. This chart parallels Chart 1, involves the same colleges, and is to be read in the same manner.

based on the total scores on the English test, aggregating 450 items, are practically identical with the relations indicated by each of the five sections of the English test separately. The indications of Chart 2 are particularly interesting because the same test has been widely administered to secondary school classes, and we are thus enabled to compare the scores of more than 15,000 college sophomores with those of 8,600 pupils in grades 9 to 12 inclusive in private secondary schools. By reference to Bulletin No. 6 of the Educational Records Bureau, published in 1930, it appears that more than fifteen per cent of the college sophomores achieved English scores below the average of ninth grade pupils in private secondary schools. The national sophomore average on the English test barely surpasses the eleventh grade average of the private secondary schools. The twelfth grade average in the private secondary schools is clearly above the national sophomore average. Of the 138 participating colleges, only 23 achieved average scores on the English test superior to the average score of the twelfth grade classes in private secondary schools; whereas 27 colleges achieved average scores lower than the tenth, and 10 colleges achieved averages lower than the ninth grade private school average. Of course, these comparisons cannot be taken as representing the relation between English standards in all American colleges and all American secondary schools. The private secondary schools that gave this test under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau are probably superior to the average of private secondary schools, and are certainly superior to the average of public schools. While the 138 colleges that participated in the college sophomore testing program make up a reasonable sampling of the more than 1,200 American institutions of collegiate rank, it is only fair to say that many of the most highly selective colleges in the country did not participate. These considerations of sampling, however, do not invalidate these comparisons as a commentary upon the English standards in some institutions that are officially recognized as collegiate in rank and of some other institutions that are officially recognized as secondary schools. If

these indications are confirmed by further experimental evidence based on more comprehensive examinations, they may assume considerable importance in the major strategy of educational administration during the next decade or two.

Charts 3 and 4 show that the differences among colleges in general science and in intelligence are not as great as in the types of achievement involved in Charts 1 and 2. Two interesting reversals appear in the averages of Colleges 1 and 129, in Charts 1 and 3. In English and general culture College 1 on Chart 1 is slightly inferior to College 2, but on Chart 3 College 1 is vastly superior to College 2. This is in consonance with evidence from other sources that boys regularly achieve

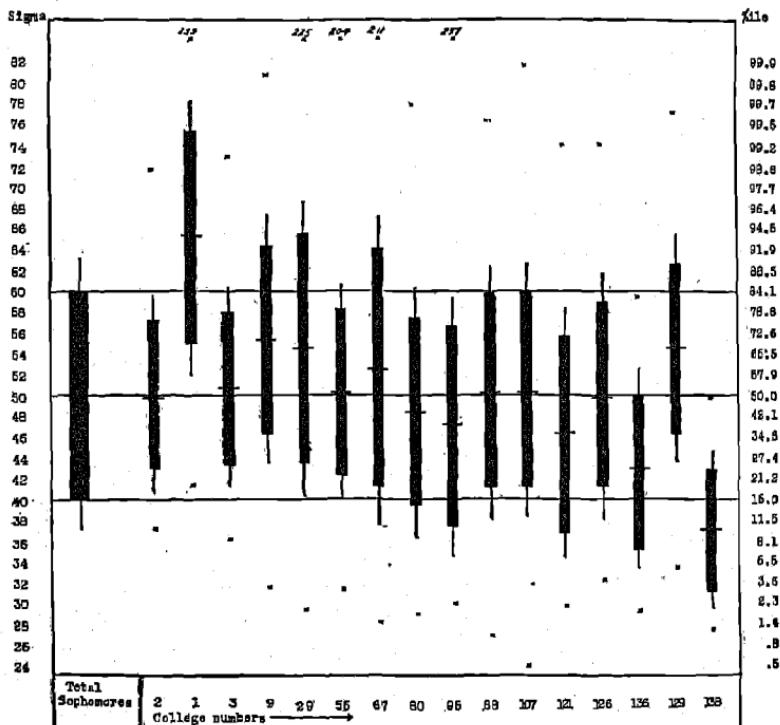


CHART 3.—Variability of achievement in participating colleges as measured by the general science test. This chart parallels Chart 1, involves the same colleges, and is to be read in the same manner.

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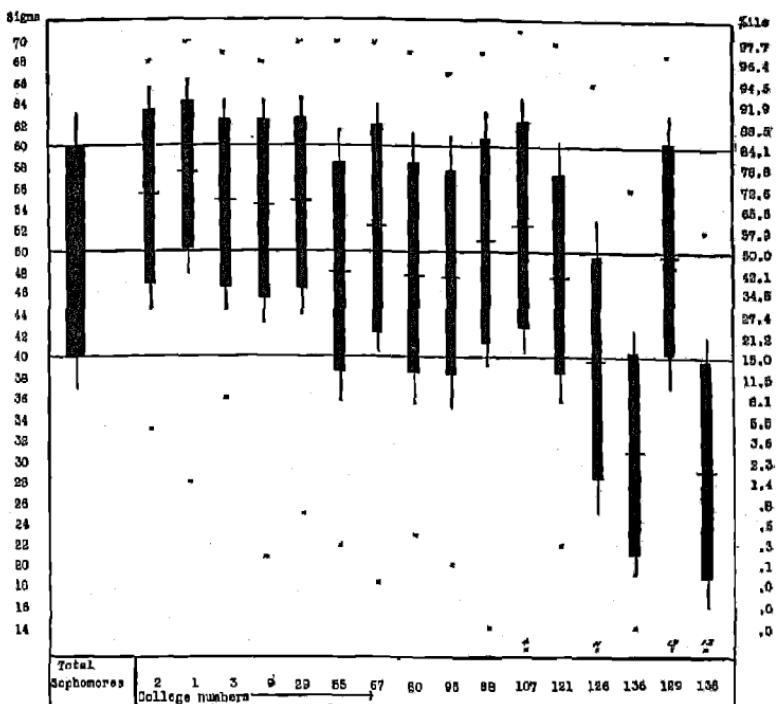


CHART 4.—Variability of intelligence in participating colleges as measured by the Otis Self-Administering Test. This chart parallels Chart 1, involves the same colleges, and is to be read in the same manner.

higher scores in the natural sciences than girls. College 129, which appears with a very low rank in Chart 1, secured an average score in general science much above the national average in Chart 3. College 129 is predominantly a science college. Chart 4 indicates that College 129 is approximately at the average on the intelligence test, so that its lower position on Chart 1 can be explained as primarily due to special interests and aptitudes of the students and to curriculum differences.

Variability within Colleges. The inter-institutional comparisons made in the preceding paragraphs are interesting, but from the viewpoint of constructive educational guidance

TABLE 2.—The average score of the sophomores of each participating college on each variable for which data are available. Colleges are numbered from 1 to 138 according to rank in general score. The numbers of sophomores tested in the colleges are indicated by code numbers, as follows: 1, 1-49 sophomores; 2, 50-99 sophomores; 3, 100-149 sophomores; 4, 150-199 sophomores; 5, 200 or more sophomores.

College Number	Code Number	Age	English Grade	Total Grade	Intelligence	Spelling	Punctuation	Vocabularv	Literature	Total English	Foreign Literature	Fine Arts	History	General Science	General Culture	English and General Culture	General Score	Education Score	
1	2	18.4	5.8	5.9	61	36	35	70	95	268	79	68	139	139	424	554	692	...	
2	3	18.8	6.0	6.1	59	34	36	72	99	276	85	82	120	87	375	564	651	...	
3	3	18.3	5.0	5.2	57	31	34	52	93	249	75	80	106	90	351	510	599	229	
4	4	18.7	5.1	5.4	57	37	34	33	64	101	272	69	81	91	81	322	513	593	...
5	4	19.0	6.2	6.1	55	33	35	32	65	87	252	64	71	106	98	339	493	591	...
6	2	20.	6	6	58	32	35	32	65	70	233	73	57	118	108	356	481	589	...
7	1	19.2	6.4	6.3	54	31	32	32	60	86	241	71	89	98	87	344	499	585	...
8	3	19.0	6.2	6.2	56	34	33	32	62	88	251	64	69	93	90	317	478	568	...
9	4	19	5	5	57	31	33	32	64	70	230	55	66	100	105	326	451	556	...
10	1	19	3	4	55	28	29	27	61	88	233	62	55	93	113	323	443	556	...
11	3	19	2	5.0	54	26	29	30	59	74	234	59	69	103	85	317	465	550	...
12	2	19.2	5.0	5.2	54	26	29	30	56	71	237	61	57	99	96	313	454	550	...
13	1	19.2	6.3	5.9	57	33	32	32	57	71	222	69	74	105	75	322	470	545	...
14	2	19.0	7.0	6.1	55	35	34	31	63	83	246	62	65	95	77	298	467	544	...
15	5	19.3	5.9	5.7	58	30	31	31	58	81	229	54	67	87	101	309	437	538	...
16	2	19.5	5.7	5.7	57	30	32	31	65	81	238	63	88	89	59	300	478	537	...

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TABLE 2.—(Continued)

Code Number	College Number	Age	English Grade	Total Grade	Intelligence	Spelling	Grammar	Vocabulary	Literature	Total English	Foreign Literature	Fine Arts	History	General Science	General Culture	English and General Culture	General Score
47	48	19	19.7	20.0	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	20.1	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.3	5.3	19.7	488
49	50	2	20.0	20.3	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	21.0	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	4.6	20.0	486
51	52	3	19.2	19.4	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	20.0	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	19.2	485
53	54	3	19.4	19.6	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	20.2	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	19.4	485
55	56	3	19.6	19.8	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	20.4	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	19.6	485
57	58	1	20.0	22.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	20.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	19.7	485
59	60	2	19.2	19.7	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	21.0	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	19.2	485
61	62	3	19.4	19.7	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	21.2	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	19.4	485
63	64	4	19.6	19.9	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	21.4	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	19.6	485
65	66	3	19.8	20.4	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	21.6	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	19.8	485
67	68	4	20.0	20.7	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	21.8	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	20.0	485
69	70	5	19.2	19.9	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	22.0	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	19.2	485
71	72	6	19.4	20.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	22.2	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	19.4	485
73	74	7	19.6	20.3	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	22.4	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	19.6	485
75	76	8	19.8	21.0	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	22.6	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	19.8	485
77	78	9	20.0	20.8	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	22.8	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	20.0	485
79	80	10	20.2	21.2	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	23.0	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	20.2	485
81	82	11	20.4	21.4	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	23.2	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	20.4	485
83	84	12	20.6	21.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	23.4	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	20.6	485
85	86	13	20.8	21.8	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	23.6	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	20.8	485
87	88	14	21.0	22.0	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	23.8	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	21.0	485
89	90	15	21.2	22.2	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	24.0	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	21.2	485
91	92	16	21.4	22.4	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	24.2	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	21.4	485
93	94	17	21.6	22.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	24.4	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	21.6	485
95	96	18	21.8	22.8	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	24.6	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	21.8	485
97	98	19	22.0	23.0	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	24.8	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	22.0	485
99	100	20	22.2	23.2	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.6	25.0	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	22.2	485

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TABLE 2.—(Continued)

College Number	Code Number	Age	English Grade	Total Grade	Intelligence	Spelling	Punctuation	Vocabulary	Literature	Total English	Foreign Literature	Fine Arts	History	General Science	English and General Culture	General Score	Educational Score
96	1	19.5	4.9	4.8	53	23	26	24	55	60	188	40	52	76	81	249	357
97	4	19.9	4.1	4.2	52	25	28	26	51	65	194	50	42	66	82	241	353
98	5	19.3	5.2	5.3	55	21	26	25	54	75	201	42	39	59	92	233	341
99	2	20.3	5.7	5.3	54	26	26	26	51	61	189	41	47	70	86	244	347
100	1	22.6	4.3	4.6	48	22	27	23	51	53	176	44	44	82	88	257	345
101	2	19.1	5.0	5.5	51	20	23	23	45	65	176	46	50	75	85	256	347
102	1	21.0	7.0	7.1	55	26	27	25	50	62	190	43	56	65	73	236	354
103	3	20.1	5.4	5.1	49	21	24	24	49	62	181	39	51	67	87	245	339
104	4	19.3	6.0	6.8	53	26	29	26	49	59	190	37	61	66	89	247	335
105	5	21	5	5	50	21	23	23	52	58	177	45	48	74	236	349	427
106	2	19.7	4.9	5.5	55	25	27	27	50	53	186	40	48	74	236	354	427
107	5	20.5	5	5	55	25	26	26	50	69	198	31	40	64	89	224	334
108	4	19.7	3.5	4.9	54	20	23	23	51	58	175	39	42	62	97	240	354
109	3	20.6	5.2	5.1	50	25	26	27	43	61	181	37	52	63	77	228	333
110	5	19.5	4.9	5.5	51	24	27	27	49	51	178	36	54	59	82	231	327
111	4	20.0	4.0	4.0	51	25	24	25	49	73	189	40	42	58	74	215	330
112	1	20.2	4.2	4.2	4.5	23	26	24	46	71	189	42	46	64	61	217	341
113	1	18.7	5.8	5.9	48	26	30	28	41	61	185	45	46	64	53	198	343
114	1	19.6	6.6	6.1	52	27	28	26	53	65	199	41	46	58	53	343	397

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115	18.9	4.3	4.4	4.4	5.5	5.2	5.0	5.0	27	30	29	46	69	34	56	57	196	340	397
116	19.1	4.4	4.8	4.8	5.2	5.2	5.0	5.0	26	24	21	52	64	36	40	72	214	323	395
117	19.9	4.8	5.3	5.3	5.1	4.7	19	16	21	20	19	15	57	171	34	40	84	223	311
118	19.8	5.3	5.6	5.6	5.6	5.0	21	23	23	24	24	48	52	151	43	45	68	81	237
119	19.9	6.1	5.5	5.5	5.5	4.9	23	24	24	24	24	46	55	171	35	41	41	70	223
120	20.0	6.1	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.0	24	24	24	25	25	44	56	173	32	49	56	75	215
121	4	20	6	6	6	6	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	49	44	44	44	49	57	212	310
122	2	20.6	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.5	6.5	6.5	51	51	51	49	49	152	152	152	152	152	215
123	1	19.6	6.5	6.5	6.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	51	20	22	22	22	22	24	24	24	24	24
124	5	19.8	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	51	19	24	24	24	24	46	46	46	46	46
125	2	19.8	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	51	19	24	24	24	24	46	46	46	46	46
126	3	20.4	6.0	6.0	6.0	5.5	5.5	5.5	41	24	21	24	21	24	33	33	33	33	33
127	1	19.1	5.1	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.0	5.0	47	27	20	22	20	22	43	43	43	43	43
128	2	21	5	5	5	5	5	5	53	14	19	19	19	19	41	41	41	41	41
129	5	21	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	5.9	39	20	19	19	19	19	33	33	33	33	33
130	1	21.9	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	45	21	20	20	20	20	34	34	34	34	34
131	2	19.2	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	43	17	17	17	17	17	32	32	32	32	32
132	4	18.9	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	43	17	17	17	17	17	32	32	32	32	32
133	1	22.3	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	47	14	15	15	15	15	36	35	35	35	35
134	3	21	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	6	44	17	14	17	17	35	35	35	35	35
135	2	20.0	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	33	15	15	15	15	15	25	25	25	25	25
136	1	20.1	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	33	15	15	15	15	15	25	25	25	25	25
137	1	20.1	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	31	15	15	15	15	15	28	28	28	28	28
138	1	21.8	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	31	15	15	15	15	15	24	24	24	24	24

the variability within colleges displayed on Charts 1 to 4 is vastly more important, because it seems clear that in the last analysis the adjustment of the curriculum and pace to suit the needs of the individual pupils must be made within the college, however much the problem may be mitigated by progressive pre-college selection and guidance of students. In many of the 138 participating colleges, roughly one-fourth of the sophomores are above the average of twelfth grade private secondary school classes on the English test, and roughly one-fourth are below the average of tenth grade classes in the same private schools. Such differences indicate not only large differences in training but probably also large differences in abilities and interests. It is the belief and hope of the committee that by close and continuous cooperation along lines already proven helpful in several states and regions, the colleges and secondary schools of the country can learn a great deal more than they now know about the specific achievements, abilities, and dominating interests of individual pupils, and will thus be in a position to meet the problem with much greater success than has attended their efforts in the past.

Complete Table of College Averages. In the preceding charts we have been concerned with the data from sixteen colleges, selected with a view to represent the 138 that gave the tests to sophomores. For the sake of those who may wish to make more detailed studies than those to which we are here limited by the time and resources at our disposal, Table 2, showing the average of each college on each variable, is presented on pages 310-315.

Distribution of College Averages on Each Variable. Table 3 (p. 317) summarizes the data of Table 2, and shows strikingly the large differences found among colleges with respect to the types of achievement measured by the tests used. From one to six colleges achieved averages one sigma or more above the national average in one or more tests or combinations of tests; and from one to ten colleges achieved averages one sigma or more below the national average in one or more tests or combinations of tests.

TABLE 3.—Distributions of College Averages on Each Variable. The college averages on each variable are here distributed in terms of national sigma units. Percentiles corresponding to the sigma points are shown at the right. In both scales the index is the lower limit of the interval. Four colleges omitted the intelligence test, and several others failed to supply data on age and college grades.

Variability of Individual College Averages on Different Variables. Inspection of Table 2 shows that in many instances a given college has widely different standings on different variables. In terms of national sigma units, this variability is particularly marked for some of the colleges that secured very high or very low general score averages.

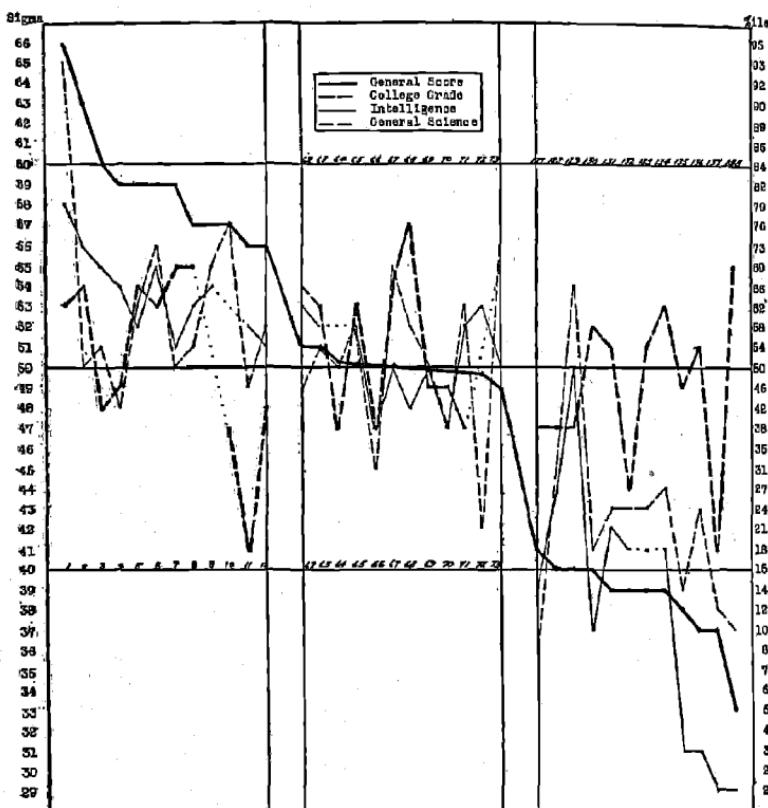


CHART 5.—Variability of college averages in various types of achievement. The highest, middle, and lowest dozen colleges according to general score are here chosen to represent the total group of participating colleges. The general score, college grade, intelligence, and general science averages of these 36 colleges are graphed in terms of national sigma units. Approximate percentile equivalents of sigma units are shown at the right. The colleges are assigned numbers according to rank in average general score.

Charts 5 and 6 illustrate such variability strikingly. Colleges 1 and 2, for example, have approximately equal averages in general score, intelligence, and total college grade; but College 1 has an average in general science at the 93rd percentile, while the average of College 2 in general science is at the national average. College 1, as noted above, is a men's college, and College 2 is a women's college.

The most striking differences in Charts 5 and 6, however, are those between the average grades given by the colleges

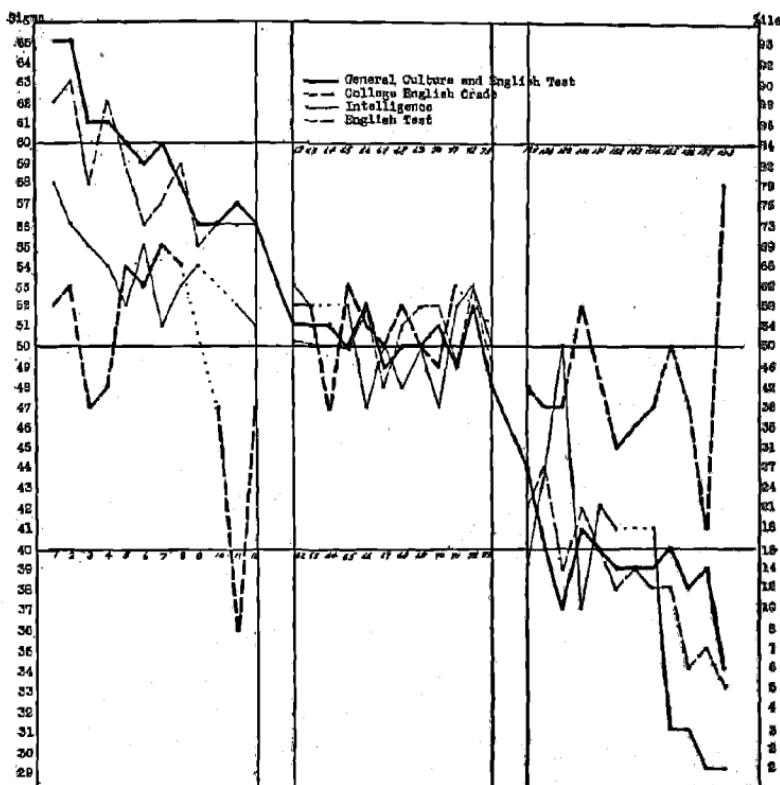


CHART 6.—Variability of college averages in various types of achievement. This chart involves the same colleges as Chart 5. The English and general culture (except general science), English grade, intelligence, and total English averages of these 36 colleges are graphed in terms of national sigma units. Approximate percentile equivalents of sigma units are shown at the right.

and their averages on the tests. The college that secured the lowest average on the whole sophomore examination gave to its sophomores higher grades than either of the two highest colleges gave to its sophomores; and College 11, whose general score average is far above the national average, gave a lower average grade to its sophomores than any one of the lowest dozen colleges gave to its sophomores. The importance of such differences to admissions officers in considering applications for advanced standing, and their greater importance for constructive educational guidance, have been described many times during the last two decades in educational literature.

Comparison of College Classes. Seven of the colleges that gave the tests to sophomores also gave the tests to freshmen; six colleges gave them also to juniors; and four colleges gave them also to seniors. The results are shown in Table 4. We do not know how the students from the freshman, junior, and senior classes were selected. The 298 freshmen are superior in English and general culture to the 817 sophomores in the first group of seven colleges. In the group of six colleges the 461 sophomores achieved averages which practically equal those of the 339 juniors. In the group of four colleges, the 353 seniors tested are slightly superior to the 516 sophomores tested in all tests and combinations of tests shown in Table 4. It was the hope of the committee that a large number of colleges would give the tests to two or more college classes, and several colleges had indicated their intention to test more than one class but were prevented from doing so by the financial stringencies of the depression. While the comparison of the four college classes would be both interesting and illuminating, it is obvious that the full value of such tests will be realized only when they are administered to the same students at intervals of one or two years throughout their college careers. It is only by the repeated administration of comparable tests that we may secure objective measures of growth. The measurement of growth is the tap-root of constructive educational guidance, both before and

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TABLE 4.—Comparison of college classes. Three groups of colleges gave the sophomore tests to students in two classes. The means and sigmas in indicated variables of the two classes tested by each of the three groups of colleges are here presented in raw score units. The samplings are too small to warrant any conclusions regarding the four classes in the 138 participating colleges.

	Seven Colleges			
	FRESHMEN		SOPHOMORES	
	N	Sigma	N	Sigma
Intelligence.....	53.8	9.4	54.6	9.7
Grammar.....	30.5	8.0	27.9	9.0
English.....	221.5	52.6	209.0	54.1
English and General Culture.....	425.2	125.7	391.7	118.5
General Science.....	68.0	29.2	83.1	36.3

	Six Colleges			
	SOPHOMORES		JUNIORS	
	N	Sigma	N	Sigma
Intelligence.....	53.6	9.6	53.1	9.7
Grammar.....	27.0	9.1	26.2	9.2
English.....	208.7	52.4	206.1	53.2
English and General Culture.....	394.6	113.1	407.6	118.9
General Science.....	92.6	33.8	96.7	30.8

	Four Colleges			
	SOPHOMORES		SENIORS	
	N	Sigma	N	Sigma
Intelligence.....	53.1	10.1	55.2	10.3
Grammar.....	26.3	9.1	28.3	9.0
English.....	200.9	49.8	213.3	58.3
English and General Culture.....	371.2	107.2	406.9	134.4
General Science.....	86.3	33.3	92.3	18.4

after students enter college. The data of Table 4 are presented for their general interest, and not because they constitute evidence of the relative standing of the four college classes for the great majority of the participating colleges. For the small group of colleges concerned, however, it is clear that some of the freshmen are far above the average of the

sophomores and some of the sophomores are far below the average of the freshmen; and that this same relation exists between the sophomores and juniors and sophomores and seniors in those colleges that gave the tests to these two pairs of classes respectively.

Comparison of Types of Colleges. Table 5 shows distributions of the average scores on eight variables of the 138 colleges that gave the tests to sophomores, when divided into seven types of institutions. Conclusions are made dangerous by the sampling problem, but accepting the indications at face value, it appears that the women's liberal arts colleges

TABLE 5.—Comparison of seven types of colleges according to average scores on each of eight variables, (1) English plus general culture test (excluding general science), (2) college English grade, (3) intelligence test, (4) general science test, (5) total English test, (6) grammar test, (7) vocabulary test, and (8) spelling test. The averages are grouped in national sigma units. The interpretation of this table is uncertain because of the sampling problem, and because of the difficulty of classifying some of the institutions. The teachers college group, for example, here includes normal schools and departments of education from several institutions. LA stands for Liberal Arts, and JC for Junior College.

(1) ENGLISH AND GENERAL CULTURE

Sigma	Coed LA	Men LA	Women LA	Coed JC	Men JC	Women JC	Teachers	Per- centile
64	1	1	92
62	3	89
60	1	84
58	1	2	1	79
56	3	2	1	1	73
54	4	4	1	1	1	66
52	10	1	3	4	1	3	3	58
50	14	4	5	2	4	50
48	14	3	5	1	42
46	5	1	1	2	2	35
44	3	2	1	1	2	27
42	1	1	21
40	2	1	1	1	15
38	1	1	1	2	12
36	8
34	1	6
Total	57	8	21	19	4	10	19	

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(2) ENGLISH GRADE

Sigma	Coed LA	Men LA	Women LA	Coed JC	Men JC	Women JC	Teachers	Per- centile
58	3	1	1	3	1	79
56	73
54	24	1	11	11	1	2	7	66
52	58
50	22	4	7	3	3	3	6	50
48	42
46	35
44	27
42	3	2	1	1	2	2	21
40	15
38	12
36	1	1	8
Total	53	8	21	18	4	8	15	

(3) INTELLIGENCE

Sigma	Coed LA	Men LA	Women LA	Coed JC	Men JC	Women JC	Teachers	Per- centile
58	1	1	79
56	1	2	73
54	8	2	1	2	2	66
52	12	9	1	1	1	3	58
50	13	2	2	5	1	2	4	50
48	11	1	4	2	4	42
46	5	2	2	1	2	3	35
44	2	2	2	1	1	27
42	2	1	21
40	1	1	2	15
38	1	12
36	1	8
34	6
32	4
30	1	1	2
28	1	1	1
Total	56	8	21	17	3	10	19	

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(4) GENERAL SCIENCE

Sigma	Coed LA	Men LA	Women LA	Coed JC	Men JC	Women JC	Teachers	Per- centile
64	1	92
62	89
60	84
58	1	79
56	1	1	4	1	73
54	4	1	1	66
52	18	1	5	1	2	58
50	9	3	4	1	1	3	50
48	10	2	4	5	3	42
46	9	5	2	1	4	35
44	2	3	2	4	27
42	1	1	2	1	3	21
40	1	1	1	2	2	15
38	1	12
36	1	1	8
Total	57	8	21	19	4	10	19	

(5) TOTAL ENGLISH TEST

Sigma	Coed LA	Men LA	Women LA	Coed JC	Men JC	Women JC	Teachers	Per- centile
62	1	1	1	89
60	84
58	4	79
56	3	2	1	1	1	73
54	4	6	1	1	66
52	9	1	4	2	1	4	1	58
50	17	1	1	7	4	4	50
48	12	1	1	4	1	2	42
46	5	1	1	1	1	3	35
44	2	1	1	3	27
42	2	2	1	1	21
40	1	2	15
38	1	1	2	12
36	1	8
34	1	1	6
32	1	4
Total	57	8	21	19	4	10	19	

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(6) GRAMMAR

Sigma	Coed LA	Men LA	Women LA	Coed JC	Men JC	Women JC	Teachers	Per- centile
58	1	3	1	79
56	2	6	2	73
54	3	3	2	4	1	66
52	10	6	1	1	4	4	58
50	16	3	2	3	1	3	50
48	10	7	1	4	42
46	11	3	2	35
44	1	1	1	27
42	1	1	1	1	21
40	1	15
38	1	2	1	12
36	2	1	1	1	8
34	1	6
Total	57	8	21	19	4	10	19	

(7) VOCABULARY

Sigma	Coed LA	Men LA	Women LA	Coed JC	Men JC	Women JC	Teachers	Per- centile
62	1	1	89
60	84
58	3	4	1	2	79
56	5	3	1	1	73
54	3	1	4	2	1	1	66
52	20	2	4	6	2	3	3	58
50	12	2	1	6	3	4	50
48	9	1	1	1	1	2	42
46	1	1	2	1	5	35
44	1	27
42	1	1	1	1	21
40	1	1	15
38	1	12
36	1	1	8
Total	57	8	21	19	4	10	19	

(8) SPELLING

Sigma	Coed LA	Men LA	Women LA	Coed JC	Men JC	Women JC	Teachers	Per- centile
60	1	84
58	1	1	79
56	6	73
54	5	1	9	1	2	5	66
52	11	2	4	2	2	58
50	12	1	4	5	5	50
48	11	3	1	4	1	5	42
46	7	1	2	35
44	8	2	1	3	1	1	27
42	2	21
40	2	1	15
38	1	12
36	1	8
Total	57	8	21	19	4	10	19	

are superior in seven of the eight variables, the exception being general science. According to the intelligence test, the junior colleges seem to be slightly superior. With these two remarks, we have exhausted the notable differences among the seven types of colleges here represented. All seven types, with minor exceptions, display a considerable variability.

As indicated above, seven of the teacher training institutions gave the professional education test to their education sophomores, aggregating 782 in number. Five of these institutions secured averages on the professional education test within .6 of a standard deviation of the average of the seven; but two of them secured averages more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ standard deviations below the common average. According to the results of these education groups on the intelligence, English, general culture, and general science parts of the sophomore examination, they are only slightly below the national average.

Comparison of Degree Groups. Chart 7 indicates that for most of the degree groups the differences are not notably large, since most of the averages are within three-tenths of a

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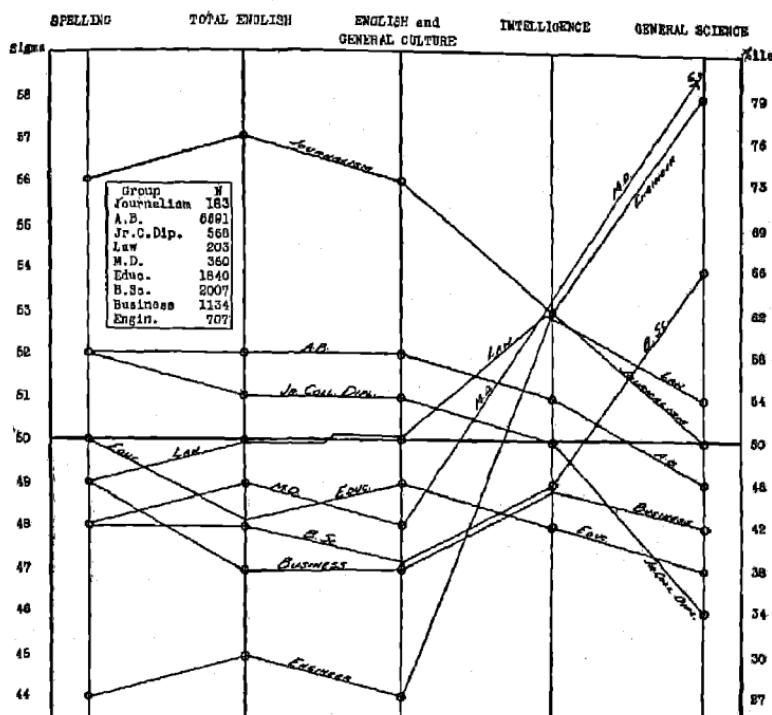


CHART 7.—Comparison of degree groups. The average scores on indicated tests of indicated degree groups are graphed in terms of national sigma units. Approximate percentile equivalents of sigma units are shown at the right.

standard deviation of the national average; but the contrast between the prospective journalists, on the one hand, and the prospective engineers, on the other, is arresting. Their averages are more than a standard deviation apart in English and general culture, equal in intelligence, and nearly one standard deviation apart in the opposite direction in general science. There is a similar contrast between the A. B. and junior college diploma groups, and the medicine and bachelor of science groups, less pronounced except for the excessively high medical score on the general science test, but quite noticeable. The candidates for the junior college diploma appear to be average college sophomores in intelligence,

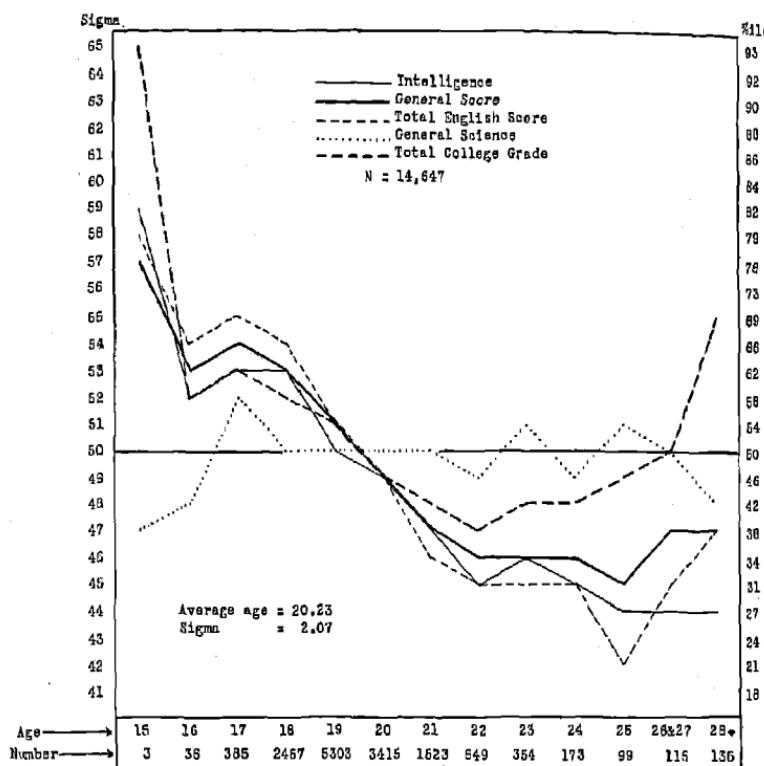


CHART 8.—Comparison of age groups. The averages on indicated variables of indicated age groups are graphed in terms of national sigma units. Approximate percentile equivalents of sigma units are shown at the right. The distribution of sophomores according to reported "age at last birthday" is shown at the bottom of the chart.

slightly superior to average college sophomores in English and general culture, and noticeably inferior in general science. The journalism, law, medicine, and engineering degree groups are equally superior according to the intelligence test. The business and educational groups are slightly below the national average in all tests represented on Chart 6 (p. 319) except spelling.

Comparison of Age Groups. Charts 8 and 9 display the familiar negative correlation between chronological age, on

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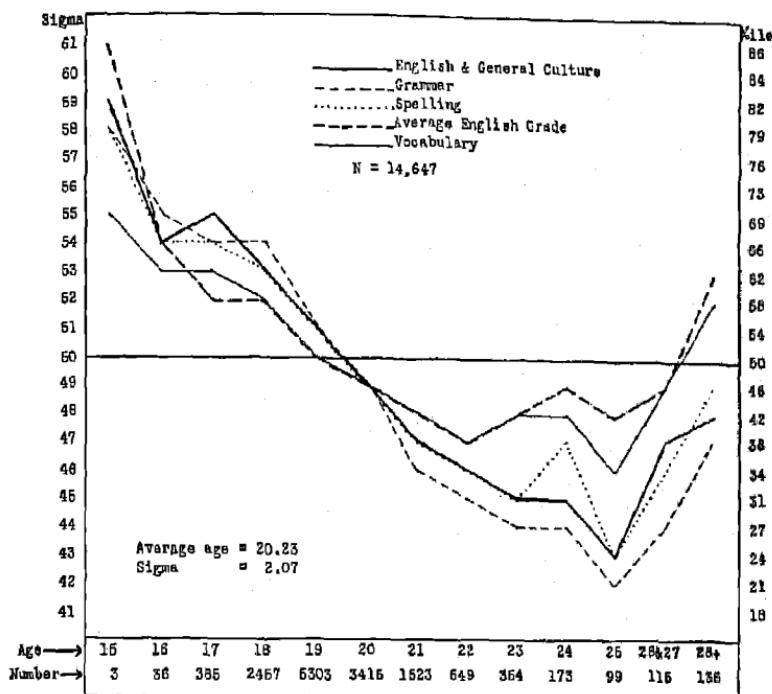


CHART 9.—Comparison of age groups. This chart parallels Chart 8, and is to be read in the same manner.

the one hand, and tested intelligence and achievement on the other, up to the age of about 22 to 25 years. The three sophomores for whom "age at last birthday" was reported as 15 years are superior to all the other age groups of the 14,000-odd sophomores, on all counts with the single exception of general science. The fact that these youngsters are superior to classmates who have lived ten or more years longer, and who have presumably had several more years of expensive schooling, is a notable manifestation of the inexorable force of individual differences, and of the powerlessness of time-serving in our schools, and credit-harvesting in the piece-meal curriculum, to level these differences.

The fact that the superiority of these youngsters is greater

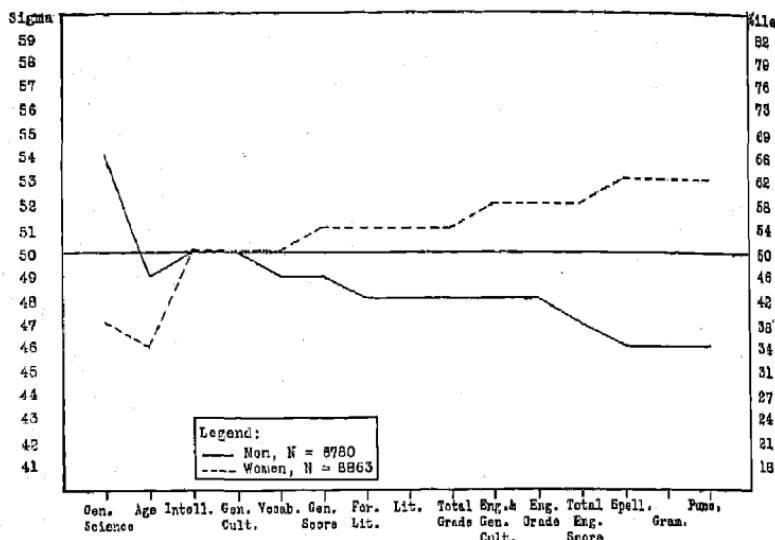


CHART 10.—Comparison of men and women sophomores. The averages on indicated variables of men and of women sophomores are graphed in terms of national sigma units. The differences shown may be accounted for largely by selective factors, and cannot be interpreted as sex differences.

according to their college grades than according to the objective test results should help remove the fear that has bothered some teachers regarding the advancement of students according to their abilities and achievements, rather than by chronological age, time-service, and number of credits. It is with the hope of facilitating an earlier and surer identification of such gifted students, as well as of other types of students, that the committee recommends a coordinated attack on the guidance problem by the colleges and secondary schools. (See Section VI, below, pp. 337 to 342.)

Comparison of Men and Women Sophomores. Chart 10 indicates some interesting differences between the men and women sophomores who took the tests in May 1932, but the interpretation of these differences is clouded by several selective and at least one curricular factor.

Relation between College Grades and Test Scores. Table 6

TABLE 6.—Correlations between college grades and scores on indicated sophomore tests for seven individual colleges. The numbers of cases range from 90 to several hundred, and average about 250 for each line of correlations. The differences between the correlations of different colleges cannot be explained by differences in variability of test scores, since the latter are slight and are not related to the magnitude of the correlations in each column.

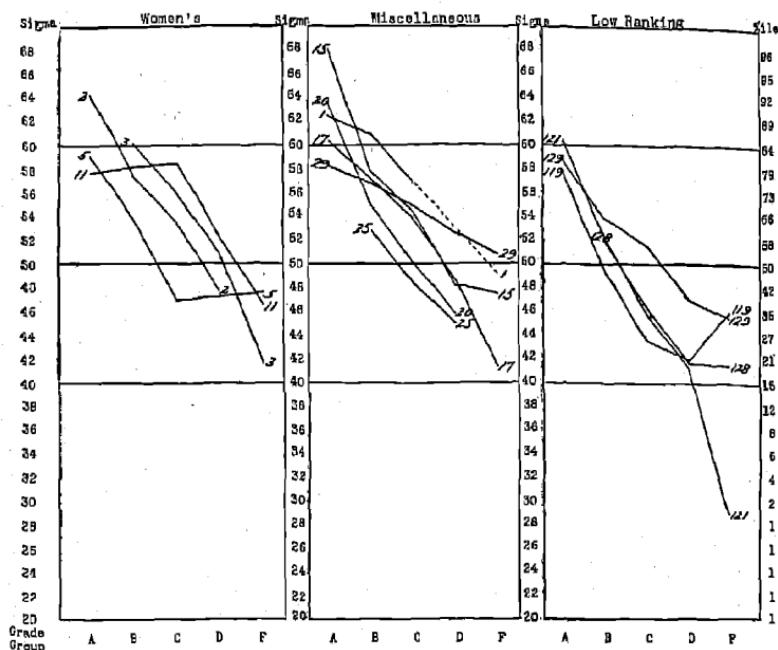


CHART 11.—Relation between average college grades and intelligence test scores. The intelligence test averages of groups of sophomores in each of several colleges who received indicated college grade averages (usually based on two years of college grades) are graphed in terms of national sigma units. In these units 60 is one sigma above, and 40 one sigma below, the national average, which is 50. Percentiles corresponding to each sigma unit are shown at the right.

The colleges are here given numbers corresponding to rank according to average general score (English test plus general culture, including general science), and are shown in three groups: (1) high-ranking women's colleges, (2) high-ranking men's and coeducational colleges, and (3) a group of low-ranking colleges. The numbers of cases in the 14 colleges here represented range from 75 to several hundred, and average about 184. In most colleges the number of sophomores who received an average grade of F is very small—1 to 3 per cent—but in one women's college more than 20 per cent were reported in this category. Letter grades were assigned to the numbers in Code A (page 303) as follows: 1 and 2, F; 3 and 4, D; 5 and 6, C; 7 and 8, B; 9, A.

shows correlations between college grades and indicated test scores for each of seven colleges. The highest average correlation in Table 6 is that between average total college grade

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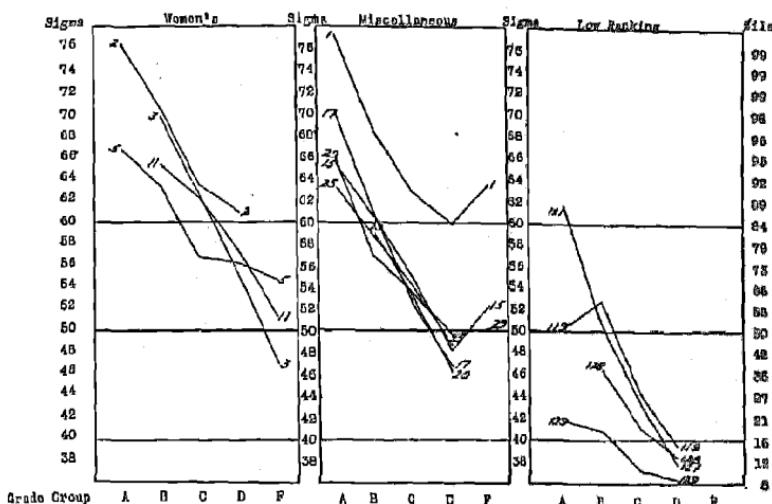


CHART 12.—Relation between average college grades and combined English and general culture test scores. This chart is parallel to Chart 11, involves the same colleges, and is to be read in the same manner.

and the English test, 0.54. The correlation between average college grade in English and the English test is only 0.48. The average correlation of total college grade with the grammar test is as high as with the English and general culture score; that is, 0.50. In so far as average college grades represent a valid criterion these correlations are consistent with the judgment that the sophomore tests are valid to a satisfactory degree. The correlations of college grades with general science scores are low and thus confirm evidence from other sources that the general science test is not homogeneous with the rest of the sophomore examination. The correlations with chronological age are, of course, low and negative.

Charts 11, 12, and 13 show the relationship between average letter-grade standing in college and scores on the intelligence, English, general culture, and general science tests in each of fourteen colleges. Test averages of indicated letter-grade groups are graphed in terms of national sigma units. These charts show at a glance that with minor exceptions

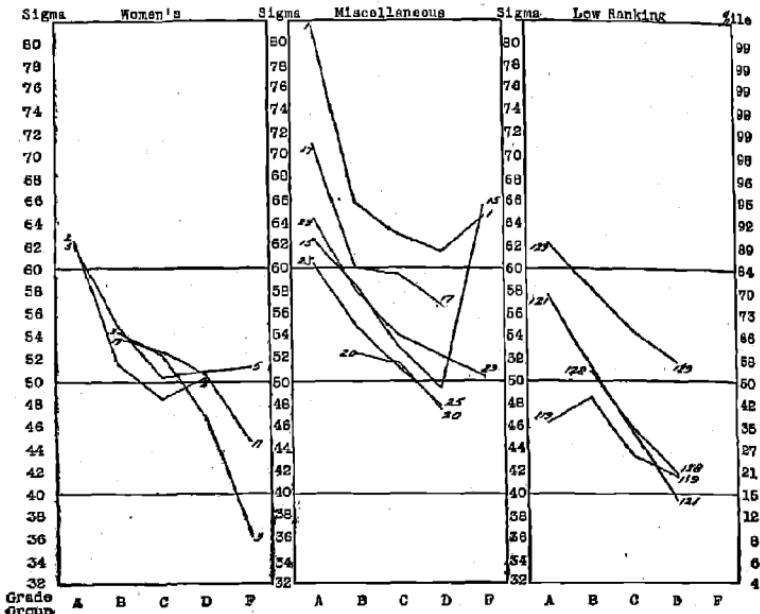


CHART 13.—Relation between average college grades and general science test scores. This chart is parallel to Chart 11, involves the same colleges, and is to be read in the same manner.

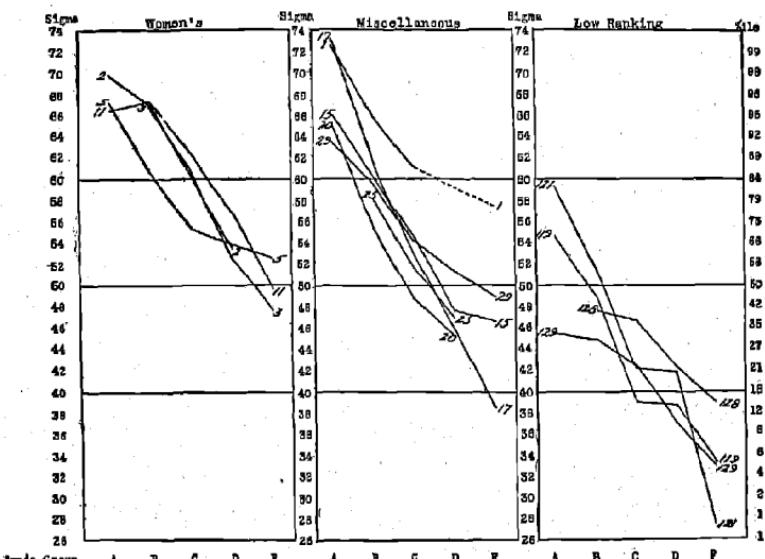


CHART 14.—Relation between average college English grades and total English test scores. This chart parallels Chart 11, involves the same colleges, and is to be read in the same manner.

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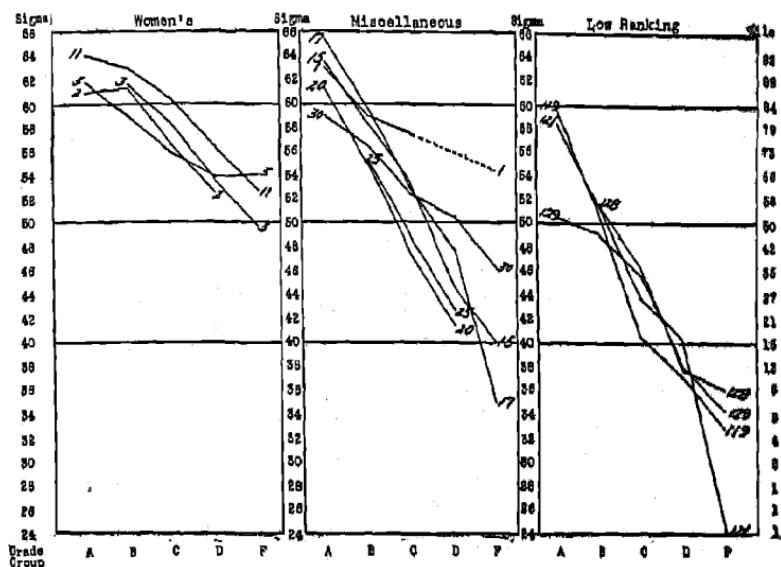


CHART 15.—Relation between average college English grades and scores on the grammar section of the English test. This chart parallels Chart 11, involves the same colleges, and is to be read in the same manner.

the higher letter-grade groups receive higher average scores. Charts 14 and 15 are based on college grades in English, but otherwise parallel Charts 11 to 13.

Time and space limitations restrict us to this brief presentation of the tabulations thus far made. The test results are punched on Hollerith cards, and the committee is anxious to cooperate with any participating institution that may wish to undertake a more complete study of its own test results. Additional data will be furnished by the committee to the limit of its slender resources.

V

THE PLACEMENT PROGRAM FOR SEPTEMBER, 1932

The experience of college and university departments clearly justifies the use of achievement tests for the classification and placement of freshmen; the findings argue strongly

for such tests in simple justice to students. A girl or boy coming from high school with accredited preparation for the second sequential course in a college subject may be properly placed in that course, or he may be fully ready for the third or fourth course, or he may have gained so little from previous study that he must begin the subject over again. Such differences actually appear among high school graduates all too frequently. Requiring a student to take a course which he does not need wastes his time and demoralizes his intellectual curiosity; to put a student into a course for which he is not prepared is discouraging to the student and annoying to the instructor. Misfits are avoided and wastefulness is reduced in many institutions by means of achievement tests. Furthermore, the positive encouragement given to a student who is advanced in recognition of previous achievement and the consequent challenge to his abilities are strong incentives; they have proven an excellent means of stimulating morale and of developing intellectual interest.

As the next important step in its program the committee is recommending a comprehensive series of comparable tests to be used cooperatively by schools and colleges for the selection and placement of students. An announcement has already been sent to the colleges offering for their use in September, 1932, this series of tests suitable for freshman placement. The committee does not ask any institution or department to replace satisfactory tests already employed, but wherever suitable ones are not available or where institutions or college associations are not equipped to construct their own, we offer a supply of tests which will be comparable from year to year and which will be used in many institutions; hence, any one college or department may know how its students in a given course compare with those of other institutions. Even in an established program of testing, the results of subjective and other local examinations may be made closely comparable from year to year if the results of the Cooperative Tests are used as a common denominator.

The tests are offered separately in individual subjects so that each institution may exercise the greatest latitude in

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selection. The committee recommends the use of any one or more of the following series, which are named in the order of importance under the conditions most frequently prevailing:

- The Cooperative English Test, either Series I or Series II.
- The Cooperative Tests in Mathematics (those branches which fit into the local situation).
- The Cooperative Tests in one or more foreign languages.
- The Cooperative Test in one natural science.

If an institution is already using a satisfactory achievement test in mathematics or English, for example, then any other parts of the above list may be used with it. To any institution which desires a recommendation or program from this committee, we suggest that it go as far as resources will permit in using placement tests in the order suggested, namely: English, mathematics, a foreign language, a natural science.

The committee urges each participating institution to use Form 1932 in September and Form 1933 in May, of whatever tests it selects; such a procedure purposes to study the growth of each student in the subject in which he is tested in September. Since the successive forms of the same test to be offered from year to year are carefully constructed and fully tried out with a view to their comparability, they may properly be used for measuring this improvement during the period in question and without regard to whether added knowledge comes from the taking of courses, from reading, or from the student's own efforts in new studies or in practical activities.

VI

A COORDINATED PROGRAM OF TESTING IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

The previous recommendation brings forward the desirability of studying growth at all stages of progress in the individual's education. Indeed, why not make the measurement of progress the chief basis for guidance and promotion as the student pursues his curriculum? Experience has shown it to be unwise to assume that every student who has obtained

"satisfactory" grades in prescribed courses has fully achieved the objectives of those courses and is ready to pursue more advanced studies. True assimilation, real intellectual advancement must be tested by something more than class recitations and course examinations; the student must be brought to face his acquired intellectual acquaintances in new forms and in new surroundings. His behavior under such circumstances should be compared with that of other individuals under the same conditions whether in neighboring communities or in distant parts of the country. These purposes are served in part by the systematic use of general, comparable tests available to institutions everywhere so that each student may have an accurate record of his achievement as measured against common standards. The basic need of a continuing supply of such tests is equally as evident for high school as for early college years.

The Cooperative Test Service² has been organized under the auspices of the American Council on Education to meet this need. The announcement of Cooperative Tests available in August and September, 1932, may be obtained from the Cooperative Test Service, 500 West 116th Street, New York City.

The development of this service has come none too soon to meet a rapidly growing and widespread demand for the adequate testing of aptitudes, achievement, and progress as the basis for individual guidance and specific training. In Minnesota a testing program intended to direct college matriculants has been carried on since 1921, at first by cooperation between the liberal college of the state university and the high schools, and later under the auspices of the state association of colleges. Seniors in all secondary schools, both public and private, take the tests, and the results are combined with the rank of the individual in his high school class to constitute a college aptitude rating. This rating serves high school principals and college personnel officers when they advise students

² THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD, January, 1931; see also the *Journal of Higher Education*, May, 1931, article by Dean Max McConn on the Cooperative Test Service.

regarding entrance to college, courses of study, and vocational objectives. Frequently, placement tests in specific subjects supplement the college aptitude rating as a basis for guidance. More or less similar programs have been developed by highly organized and efficient state associations in Ohio and Wisconsin. In Indiana, Iowa, and Colorado, state-wide programs of different types are well under way; in North Carolina, Alabama, and Washington, plans are being perfected for cooperative testing in the immediate future.

Meantime the Educational Records Bureau has offered a unique service in testing and in the keeping of cumulative records. This service is widely used chiefly by private schools and by colleges. The Pennsylvania Study, already well known from the Carnegie Foundation's reports and published comments, has yielded an outstanding example of the advantages contingent upon cooperation between schools and colleges which measure achievement with comparable tests in state-wide programs. The Pittsburgh Bureau of Educational Records and Research, the organization of which was partly inspired by the Carnegie Foundation's Pennsylvania Study, is emphasizing the importance of the continuous study of individual pupils by means of comparable measurements which may reveal growth as well as status at any one time.

The College Relations Committee of the Educational Records Bureau has written an admirable report dealing with the improvement of conditions for those who are at or near the transition point from school to college.

The Progressive Education Association is launching a long-time project to develop cooperation between secondary schools and colleges in framing and administering curricula which shall provide for the needs of individual students and set them in the way both of intellectual achievement and of personal and moral self-realization. The work of the Secondary Education Board, in the direction of more intelligent control and use of educational resources, based on more adequate study of pupils as individuals, has long been well and favorably known. The recent proposal of qualifying exami-

nations by the College Entrance Examination Board is another indication of the widespread appreciation of the need for earlier and longer study of the achievements and aptitudes of pupils for college admission as one phase of the educational guidance problem.

In Minnesota, as in other states, the need of a program of testing and advising to begin earlier in the high school period has long been recognized. Discussions carried on during the last two years have shown that a large number of the high schools are awaiting the cooperation of universities and colleges in such a project. With confidence in such cooperation already established, the use of measures basic to educational guidance from the ninth grade onward could be rapidly developed; it would be necessary only to introduce into all grades of the high school a standard intelligence test together with comparable achievement tests in the important subjects. Supporting the testing program and making use of its results, there should be provided advisers who are well trained. The purpose of both testing and advising should be to help children become conscious of their interests and abilities and to reveal the types of work involved and kinds of ability required for various occupations and professions. Further, the advisers through the use of tests, school records, interviews, and knowledge of family and community relations could lead the child early to a provisional choice between college education and vocational training, as indicated by the child's abilities and interests. In this way an intelligent view of the child's situation and prospects could be arrived at one or two years earlier than the period at which under present conditions a rough and hasty guess is made because the time has come to decide whether to go to college or not.

A provisional decision to attempt college having been arrived at by the end of the tenth grade, the child should undertake to prepare himself during the rest of the high school period in those subjects which form a desirable foundation for college studies and professional endeavor. In this way a college preparatory course would become a matter of individual choice under the guidance of an unbiased adviser.

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The college preparatory course would no longer be a general high school curriculum imposed by the university or a standardizing agency. Another important result of early guidance would be to give the pupil and his parents time to plan the financial arrangements necessary for college attendance. If the individual pupil does not discover in himself the qualifications necessary to a vocation or profession demanding college training, then he should devote himself during his last two years in high school, still under the guidance of his adviser, to studies or activities which will begin to fit him for success in some other vocation and hence for a life of satisfaction and happiness.

Such testing and advising in the high school should be carried on with the close cooperation of the colleges and universities. Cumulative records of scholarship, standardized tests, and a record of all important experiences and achievements are indispensable as evidences of growth, initiative, and significant traits and attitudes. The provisional decision to attempt college work should be re-examined each year, and the entire cumulative record should be taken into account in making the final decision as to college entrance. This program of guidance over a period of four or more years may be supplemented by such placement tests as may be given by the higher institution which the student desires to enter.

As the result of such a plan of advising with the help of cumulative records and comparable tests, the student would be brought to his college work with some intelligent appreciation of what it means to him and would go on with the friendly help of a faculty counsellor. As he makes a record for himself in college, at the end of each semester and year there should go back to his high school a report on his work, not in the formal terms of the registrar's office alone but also in words of interpretation by his faculty counsellor. In some such way as this might be accomplished the cooperation of high school and college so highly to be desired and now so largely wanting.

Most of the elements necessary for such a plan are ready at hand in many states. It is hoped that the comparable tests

now being offered by this committee will greatly facilitate the development of state-wide projects along such lines. It is not the purpose of the committee or of the Cooperative Test Service to interfere with local, state, or regional programs that are already organized to make and use their own tests; rather, we are offering a continuing supply of comparable tests to regions that are not equipped to supply their own tests. For the sake of securing nation-wide comparable measurements, and thus facilitating continuous guidance for pupils who transfer from one state or testing organization to another, the Cooperative Test Service requests the assistance of all testing units in making the Cooperative Tests comparable with their tests from year to year. With this understanding the committee invites correspondence from state universities, state superintendents or commissioners of education, the officers of state associations of colleges or others who may be in a position to take the initiative in the organization of state-wide projects in which high schools and colleges will join in the educational guidance of young people entering upon their secondary school training.

VII

THE NATION-WIDE COLLEGE SOPHOMORE TESTING PROGRAM FOR MAY, 1933

The reception given to the committee's proposal of the past year, especially the large number of colleges which wrote that they desired to be included in such a testing program in later years although they were unable to participate in 1932, compels the committee to give careful consideration to the preparation of a general test for sophomores to be given in May, 1933. Materials now in hand will provide tests in English and foreign languages, a general test in science, a general test in mathematics, and a general culture test including social studies and the humanities. An announcement will be made later regarding the exact content of these tests and the conditions under which they may be offered.

The committee is making these preliminary announcements because it believes that in one or more of the ways

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suggested it can render a great service to many colleges throughout the country. During the present period of unprecedented financial distress, the colleges are called upon more than ever to justify their existence; more than ever it is necessary to know whether funds are being wisely expended and whether adequate returns are following upon money invested. A cooperative testing program puts into the hands of the colleges the tools for critical evaluation, provides them with a knowledge of their relative status, and supplies one means of demonstrating their value in the social order. The Cooperative Test Service, because it is largely supported by benevolent funds, should make such a program feasible at a cost much less than that required for an independent survey and should help many colleges to meet a crisis which they cannot survive without searching self-examination and reconstruction.

Respectfully submitted,

THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE TESTING,

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